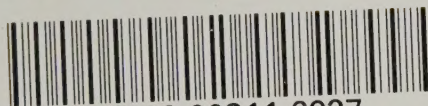


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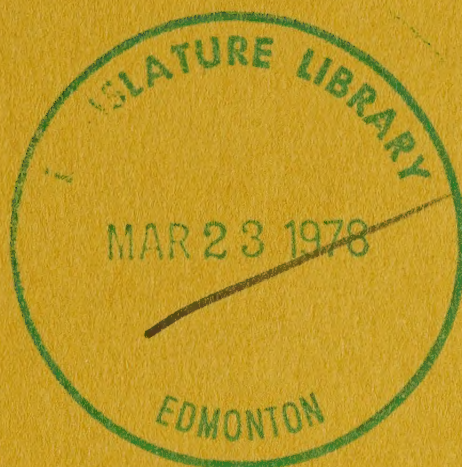
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RESEARCH REPORT

THE FAMILY
IN--ALBERTA
Lyle E. Larson

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Foreword

Early in 1971 the Human Resources Research Council sponsored the series

THE FAMILY IN ALBERTA

source papers on various aspects of life in Alberta.

The purposes of the papers were: (1) to develop conceptual frameworks for analyzing some various aspects of the quality of life; (2) to assemble the best available data relating to them; and (3) to identify gaps in data.

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Lyle E. Larson
Assistant Professor
Department of Sociology
The University of Alberta

The series was completed in 1971; it is due for release in late 1971.

This paper on The Family in Alberta is one of the series.

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Human Resources Research Council of Alberta

March, 1971

Foreword

Early in 1971, the Human Resources Research Council sponsored the preparation of a series of resource papers on various aspects of life in Alberta.

The purposes of the papers were: (1) to develop conceptual frameworks for analysing these various aspects of the quality of life; (2) to assemble the best available data relating to them; and (3) to identify gaps in data.

These papers, in turn, were to be used in two ways: first, as the initial input to a Social Audit -- a report to the people of Alberta on the quality of life of its citizens; second, as something of an inventory of needed research -- an invitation to scholars to assist in filling gaps in our knowledge about various aspects of life in this Province.

The Social Audit is now in preparation; it is due for release in late 1971.

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Preface

This report summarizes the results of a survey of all obtainable data on family life in Alberta. As conceived, the project was commissioned to provide readily accessible information concerning a number of questions relative to family structure and relationships: What types of families exist in Alberta? Who lives in each type? Where are they located? What types of relationships exist between family members in differing types of families? What is being done to assist families in carrying out their functions? How coordinated is this assistance? How accessible are these services? How much do they cost the consumer? How much do these services cost society? Accordingly, the task was defined to include three central aspects: (a) the identification of all available published or unpublished demographic and research data of relevance to family life in Alberta; (b) to establish the scope, accessibility, and cost of the services provided to families; and (c) to explore the implications of the findings for both policy formation and future research.

The study reported here was conducted at the request of the Human Resources Research Council of Alberta. It should be emphasized that the task was not defined as either analytical or critical. In consequence, the data surveyed are reported as information without a detailed assessment of the quality of the data relative to theory, method, or contribution. Further, it is probable that data of relevance to both family life and family services have been missed. Time limitations preclude the complete enumeration of all sources of information. Nonetheless, it is believed that the data are well represented.

This manuscript is a modified form of the original report. Special thanks are due to Dr. Charles Hobart for his assistance in the revision. The support and interest of several organizations and persons is gratefully acknowledged.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Few people, whatever their marital status, are able to ignore the pervasive influence of the family. Singletons tend to retain their kinship ties or to be systematically subjected to the couple-oriented and family-oriented society in their everyday associations. Accordingly, it is reasonable in a review of the distribution and status of people in society to establish the patterns of family structures and relationships. Indeed, establishing a base line of our knowledge concerning the family in Alberta will lay the groundwork for policy formation and subsequent research relative, in particular, to family stability and change and the development of both adequate and appropriate family services.

This report attempts to provide specific answers to several compelling questions concerning the status of family life in Alberta. Before turning to the answers, the substance of the report, perhaps it will be helpful to identify certain of the relevant questions.

Demographic Characteristics of the Family

The *form* or structure of the family differs widely from society to society. In Canada, families are required to be *monogamous* (one spouse) rather than *polygamous* (more than one spouse). The typical Canadian family is *nuclear* (family head, spouse, and their children) rather than *extended* (one or more grandparents or unrelated persons living with a nuclear family) or *single parent* (widowed or divorced). The average family has two or three children, although families may vary from childless to those with more than a dozen children.

While the structure of the family may be typical, the *distribution* of families differs widely even in Alberta. Different types and sizes of families live in differing types of dwellings, different locations in the province, and different locations in the cities. Ethnic origin, income, religion, occupation, and education offer insight into the distribution of various family types and family life styles. The age of marriage for males and females, marriage and divorce rates, illegitimacy rates, length of marriage, child-bearing period, remarriage rates, intermarriage patterns, and maternal employment vary significantly among families in Alberta.

Demographic analysis seldom asks *why* families differ in

structure and distribution, choosing instead to ask *how*. Do divorced families have fewer children? Do divorced families rent rather than own their dwellings? Do divorced families have lower incomes? Do divorced families have certain ethnic or religious characteristics? Do young families tend to live in apartments? Do young families tend to live in cities? These questions illustrate the type of inquiry that can be answered with census data. Answers to these questions can guide the structure and distribution of housing and the formation of policy relative to meeting the needs of people or altering social disparities, or simply provide insight into the organization of society.

Research Data

Research, of course, includes the study of demographic materials. However, considerable research is directed toward the study of attitudes and behaviors.

Generally, research most often seeks also to answer *how* rather than *why* questions. As such, *descriptive* or exploratory research asks, for example: What impact does the father's occupational and educational level have on the academic achievements of his children? Do children in small families have different personality and success characteristics from children in large families? What is the relationship between the marital emotional climate and marital satisfaction to the development of the child's self-concept? What impact does parental negligence have on pathology among children?

Explanatory research, in contrast, attempts to lay the groundwork for answers to *why* questions. It does so through the use of sophisticated research methods which are designed to test hypotheses about families: the more precise the job assignments in the household, the more stable the marriage; or divorce is a consequence of (a) the lack of constraint against divorce, felt by the individual himself or pressure from close friends, (b) the lack of positive feelings, and (c) the attractiveness of the alternatives relative to staying with one's spouse.

Answers to both *how* and *why* questions relative to marriage and family structure and process will enhance our understanding of ideology and behavior in families and perhaps permit the prediction of psychological and social outcomes, lend credence to the establishing of social agencies to serve families or the alteration of educational experiences to meet special educational needs or other priorities in policy formation, and call into question current policy.

Family Services

Agencies serving families in one sense only serve *individuals* connected with families. However important the improvement of individual health, the *milieu* of ill health cannot be ignored. Assuming that agencies direct their services toward families, it is important to ask several questions: First, how many agencies of what type serve families in Alberta? Where are they located? How much do the services cost? Similarly, what are the ways in which agencies serve families, what type of population do they serve, how many families do they serve, and how successful are they? The distribution of services by census divisions relative to population size and characteristics may reveal substantive disparities. Second, similar questions may be raised concerning the appropriateness and adequacy of personnel in the helping professions, including psychiatrists, psychologists, guidance counselors, social workers, lawyers, physicians, and others. Assessing, where possible, the quantity and quality of services available to families in the province will provide essential information in the development of training programs, the allocation of resources, and policy formation.

Organization

The second chapter summarizes the available demographic data on family related characteristics comparing, where possible, Canada, Alberta, and Alberta census divisions. Most of the data are obtained from either Dominion Bureau of Statistics or Alberta Bureau of Statistics publications. Unpublished data are ignored.

Chapter Three provides a cursory examination of unpublished reports, theses, and papers and published materials of relevance to the family. Due to the apparent gaps in the research literature, the annotation of references is emphasized. Case studies, ethnographies, and biographies are ignored. It is recognized, however, that case materials collected by lawyers, physicians, social workers, and others can be an important source of information. Generally these records are not accessible unless they are published. Chapter Four presents the data obtained on agencies and personnel involved in serving families in the province. Consideration is given to the distribution and availability of services in relation to population data. Unfortunately, the time limitations imposed on this study precluded personal contact with each of the agencies in the province. In consequence, the data are limited to published information, lists of organizations and personnel, and the reports of selected agencies.

The final chapter deals specifically with the implications of this report for research and policy.

CHAPTER II

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE FAMILY IN ALBERTA*Introduction*

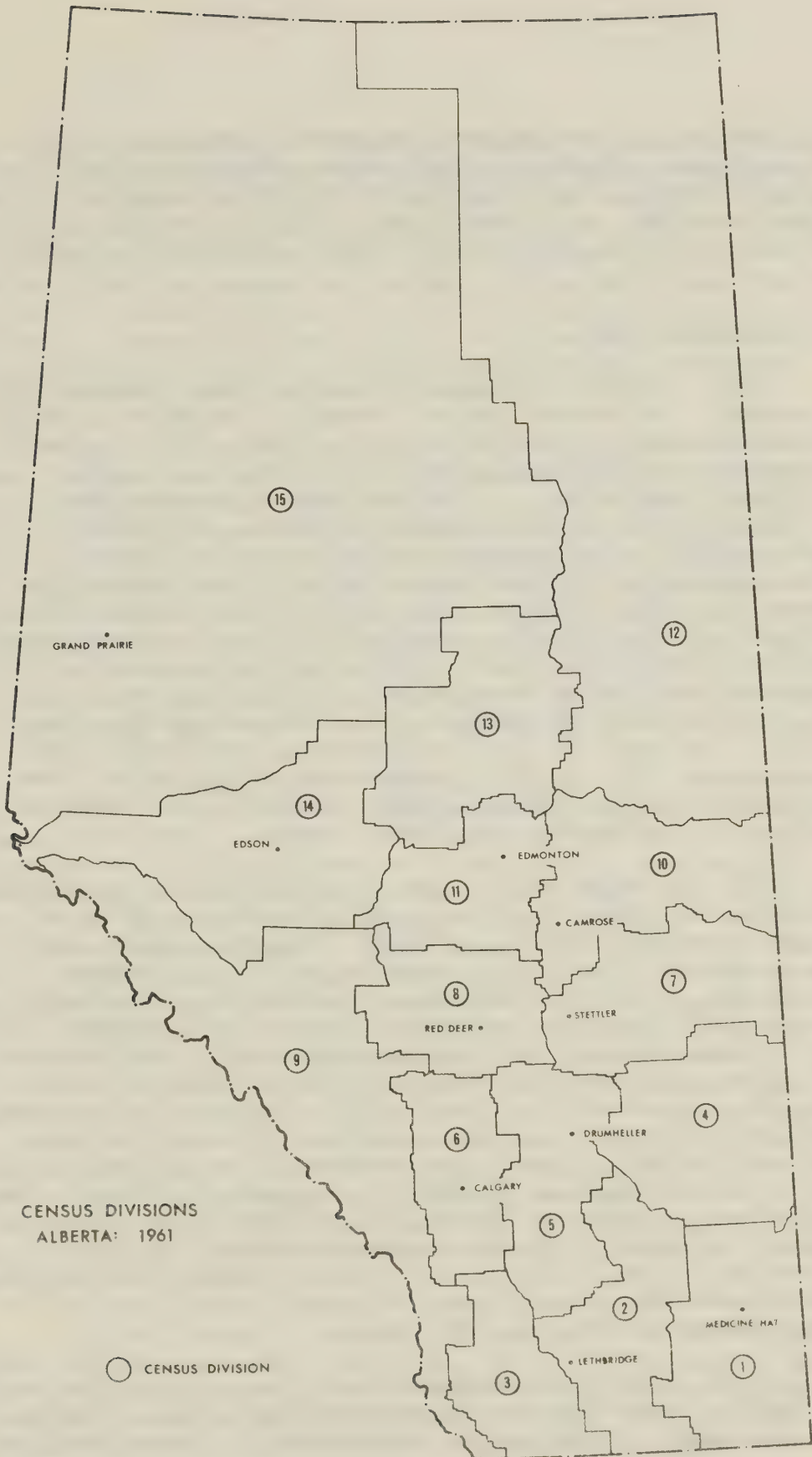
Demographic data provides an excellent but often neglected opportunity for family study. As indicated in the first chapter, there is much that can be learned from the analysis of published census materials about issues of immediate relevance to family life in Alberta. Accordingly, emphasis is given to comparisons between Alberta and Canada and comparisons among census divisions within Alberta.

Due to the frequent reference to census divisions, it will be helpful to identify their location. The map on page 5 provides a rough guide to the boundaries of each of the 15 divisions. Identifying towns or cities are listed below to orient the reader to the area of the province. More specific information can be obtained from the recent annual report of the Department of Health (1968).

<u>Census Division</u>	<u>Town or City</u>
CD 1	Medicine Hat
CD 2	Lethbridge
CD 3	Fort MacLeod
CD 4	Hanna
CD 5	Drumheller
CD 6	Calgary
CD 7	Wainwright, Stettler
CD 8	Red Deer
CD 9	Banff
CD 10	Camrose, Lloydminster
CD 11	Edmonton
CD 12	Lac La Biche, Fort McMurray
CD 13	Athabasca
CD 14	Edson
CD 15	Grande Prairie

Definitions of the census terms (e.g., household) are provided on pages 87-89

Data are first presented concerning general vital statistics, including birth, death, marriage, and divorce. Second, census



materials relating to types of families, marital status, and family size are considered. Factors related to the social characteristics of families in Alberta, including type of dwelling, occupation, income, and education, are discussed next. Finally, certain social characteristics of those who marry in Alberta are briefly presented.

General Vital Statistics

Table 1 provides evidence for several trends between 1936 and the present. The rate of natural increase (the number of births relative to the number of deaths) reached a high in 1954 in Alberta and has progressively declined, until in 1968 the rate is only slightly higher than in 1936. A similar trend is apparent for Canada. The percentage of illegitimate births has consistently increased from 1936 to the present in both Canada and Alberta. Alberta has substantially higher percentage of illegitimate births than Canada as a whole. Indeed, since 1960 the rate has more than doubled (5.6 to 11.9 per cent). Length of life has also consistently increased from 1936 to the present. Males in Alberta now live 17 years longer on the average than they did in 1936; females, in contrast, live more than 24 years longer on the average than they did in 1936. The length of life in Alberta was considerably lower than in Canada in 1936. In 1967, in contrast, Alberta males lived slightly longer than the average Canadian male while the length of life for females continued to be slightly lower.

While the length of life has increased, the age at marriage for both males and females has consistently decreased. Males in Alberta were marrying at the age of 28 in 1940 and now marry about three years younger. Females, in contrast, married far younger in 1940, at the age of 24 on the average, and currently marry at the average age of 22. Marriage rates have changed little between 1936 and 1968. Although they are not currently as high as they were in 1946, it may be emphasized that they are higher in 1968 (8.9 per cent) than they were in 1936 (7.8 per cent). In fact, the marriage rate has been increasing consistently and rapidly since its low (7.2 per cent) in 1963. There is no evidence of lack of interest in marriage in either Alberta or Canada. It is apparent, however, that the divorce rate is higher in Alberta in 1968 than at any point in its history. In Alberta, the rate reached a high of 119.8 per 100,000 persons in 1946, then steadily declined until 1955 to 57.5. The rate has more than doubled since 1955 and is nearly two and one half times as high in Alberta as in Canada.

In the interest of subsequent analysis, the distribution of ethnic groups by census division is presented in Table 2. Peoples of British Isles ethnic origin are over-represented in Census Division 6.

Those of French descent are over-represented in Census Divisions 12 and 15. There are nearly three times as many people of German ethnicity in Census Division 1 as in Alberta as a whole. Italians represent nearly 7 per cent of Census Division 9, while the average for Alberta is about 1 per cent. There are fewer Jews in all divisions than the average for Canada. The largest proportion of Dutch are in Census Division 2, Poles in Census Division 13, Russians in Census Divisions 1 and 4, Scandinavians in Census Divisions 7 and 10, Ukrainians in Census Divisions 10 and 12, and Native peoples in Census Divisions 3, 12, and 15.

Selected vital statistics for the census divisions in Alberta and selected cities are presented in Table 3. The legitimate birth rate varied from a low of 14.1 per cent in Census Division 9 to a high of 20.5 per cent in Census Division 12. Census Divisions 12 and 15 have unusually high rates while the majority (12 out of 15) have rates below 17.3 per cent. In this context, the reader will observe in Table 2 that Census Division 12 has considerably higher representations of French, Ukrainian, and Indian and Eskimo ethnic groupings. Similarly, Census Division 15 has a higher representation of French and Indian and Eskimo ethnicity. Apparently, family size is larger among these ethnic groups than among others in Alberta.

The percentage of illegitimate births also varies widely from a low of 5.6 per cent of live births to a high of 21.6 per cent in Census Division 9. Census Divisions 9, 3, 15, 12, and 13, in that order, have illegitimate births of 14 per cent or more, whereas Census Divisions 4, 7, and 10 have less than 6 per cent illegitimate births. The marriage rate is unusually high in Census Division 3 (11.3 per cent) and unusually low in Census Division 14 (5.0 per cent). In the cities, the marriage rate appears to be highest in Drumheller (15.9 per cent) and extremely low in Edmonton (3.4 per cent). Calgary's rate is nearly three times as high as that of Edmonton (9.7 per cent). Divorce statistics are not available for census divisions, but only for judicial districts. Accordingly, the divorce rate is presented for the 11 districts. It is apparent that the divorce rate for 1968, 123.5 per 100,000, hides a substantial variation across the province. Calgary and Red Deer have the highest divorce rates, nearly twice as high as the provincial average. Lethbridge and Edmonton follow closely behind. In contrast, the divorce rates are considerably below the average in Drumheller and Hanna judicial districts.

Table 4 reveals that the first child is born, on the average, before the mother reaches the age of 22. Subsequent births occur at regular intervals. It is apparent that spacing between children is minimized the more children a mother bears. Table 5 indicates that less than 14 per cent of children are born before

TABLE I
VITAL STATISTICS FOR CANADA AND ALBERTA, 1936 - 1968

YEAR	RATE OF NATIONAL INCREASE ¹		ILLEGITIMATE BIRTHS ²		MEDIAN AGE AT DEATH		MARRIAGE RATES		MEDIAN AGE AT MARRIAGE		DIVORCE RATES ³	
	CAN.	ALTA.	CAN.	ALTA.	MALES	FEMALES	CAN.	ALTA.	MALE	FEMALE	CAN.	ALTA.
1936	10.4	12.4	3.9	3.8	58.9	59.8	7.4	7.8			14.3	28.2
37	9.7	12.4	3.9	3.9	57.9	59.0	7.9	8.2			16.6	33.4
38	11.0	12.8	4.0	4.3	59.6	61.3	7.9	8.9			20.0	34.7
39	10.9	13.6	3.9	3.7	61.0	63.1	9.2	10.0			18.4	34.6
1940	11.8	14.1	3.9	3.9	61.7	63.8	10.8	11.1			21.2	34.7
41	12.3	13.7	4.0	4.2	61.2	63.6	10.6	10.6	27.6	27.8	21.4	39.1
42	13.7	15.8	4.1	4.2	61.7	63.6	10.9	11.6	27.6	27.7	26.5	48.3
43	14.1	16.3	4.1	4.5	62.5	64.7	9.4	9.9	27.4	27.7	28.8	52.6
44	14.2	16.2	4.2	4.4	62.7	64.5	8.5	9.0	27.6	27.6	32.0	59.9
45	14.8	16.7	4.5	5.3	63.1	65.0	9.0	9.0	27.3	27.6	42.3	71.2
46	17.8	19.4	4.1	5.5	63.1	65.3	10.9	11.8	27.1	27.3	63.1	119.8
47	19.5	22.0	4.0	4.7	63.3	66.0	10.1	10.7	26.9	27.3	65.4	106.8
48	18.0	20.0	4.3	5.1	64.1	67.0	9.6	10.4	26.8	27.2	54.4	76.2
49	18.0	20.2	3.9	4.9	64.5	67.4	9.2	10.2	26.9	27.1	45.0	67.1

TABLE I (continued)

1950	18.0	20.6	3.9	4.6	65.1	65.2	68.2	66.0	9.1	10.2	26.7	26.9	23.8	23.2	39.3	58.5
51	18.2	21.2	3.8	4.7	65.5	65.0	68.8	66.1	9.2	9.9	26.6	26.6	23.8	23.1	37.6	62.7
52	19.2	22.4	3.8	4.5	65.1	64.7	68.4	65.6	8.9	9.8	26.5	26.5	23.7	23.0	39.1	64.7
53	19.5	23.4	3.8	5.0	65.7	65.1	69.3	66.6	8.8	10.0	26.3	26.2	23.7	22.9	41.5	59.6
54	20.3	24.7	3.9	4.6	66.3	65.9	69.7	68.0	8.4	9.4	26.3	26.1	23.6	22.9	38.7	57.7
55	20.0	24.2	3.8	5.0	67.0	67.1	70.4	68.1	8.2	9.0	26.2	26.2	23.5	22.9	38.6	57.5
56	19.8	24.2	3.9	4.8	67.0	67.5	70.6	68.8	8.3	8.9	26.1	26.1	23.4	22.7	37.3	61.0
57	20.0	23.6	4.0	5.1	66.9	68.0	70.6	68.5	8.0	8.7	26.1	25.9	23.3	22.7	40.3	62.4
58	19.6	23.7	4.0	5.1	67.2	67.5	71.2	69.5	7.7	8.4	26.0	26.0	23.2	22.6	36.8	61.6
59	19.4	23.7	4.2	5.6	67.7	67.9	71.8	70.5	7.6	8.3	25.9	25.9	23.1	22.6	37.4	67.0
1960	19.0	23.3	4.3	5.6	67.8	68.4	72.0	69.8	7.3	8.1	25.8	25.9	23.0	22.3	39.1	73.7
61	18.4	22.5	4.5	6.2	67.9	68.3	72.2	70.6	7.0	7.9	25.8	25.9	22.9	22.3	36.0	78.0
62	17.6	21.5	4.8	6.6	68.0	69.0	72.4	71.1	7.0	7.6	25.6	25.8	22.8	22.3	36.4	79.2
63	16.8	20.7	5.3	7.1	68.2	69.2	72.9	72.0	6.9	7.2	25.6	25.6	22.8	22.2	40.6	90.4
64	15.9	18.7	5.9	8.3	68.1	68.6	72.9	71.6	7.2	7.4	25.4	25.5	22.7	22.2	44.7	97.1
65	13.7	15.9	6.7	9.8	68.5	69.2	73.4	72.2	7.4	7.7	25.3	25.3	22.6	22.1	45.7	93.0
66	11.9	14.3	7.6	10.5	68.4	69.6	73.5	73.1	7.8	8.1	25.2	25.3	22.6	22.0	51.2	107.1
67	10.8	14.2	8.3	11.5	68.2	69.3	73.6	72.5	8.1	8.7	25.0	25.1	22.6	22.1	54.7	116.5
68		13.3		11.9						8.9						124.4

¹ per 1,000 population² percentage of live births that are illegitimate³ per 100,000 population

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics Catalogue 84-202

TABLE 2
ETHNICITY FOR CANADA, ALBERTA, AND ALBERTA CENSUS DIVISIONS, 1966
(in percentages)

ETHNIC GROUP	TOTALS		ALBERTA CENSUS DIVISIONS														
	CANADA	ALBERTA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
British Isles	43.8	45.2	36.1	39.4	49.1	47.1	46.5	57.7	49.1	54.8	43.5	31.2	44.0	21.1	31.7	40.6	33.8
French	30.4	6.3	2.4	2.3	3.7	2.6	3.7	3.9	4.6	3.7	3.9	2.8	7.0	24.6	8.3	8.9	15.1
German	5.8	13.8	35.8	15.4	12.1	22.4	16.7	11.8	20.1	12.3	7.4	11.1	14.1	4.3	16.8	14.7	10.4
Italian	2.5	1.1	0.7	1.7	0.6	0.1	1.1	1.6	0.2	0.5	6.6	0.1	1.2	0.6	0.4	1.1	0.3
Jewish	1.0	0.3	0.3	0.2	.02	-	0.1	0.6	-	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.5	.02	-	0.1	.02
Nether-lands	2.4	4.2	3.4	8.6	3.9	2.3	5.2	4.1	2.8	5.0	2.3	1.9	3.9	0.9	3.5	4.7	5.9
Polish	1.8	3.0	1.9	2.4	1.1	3.4	1.9	1.9	2.1	1.5	4.9	5.2	3.8	4.2	6.6	3.7	3.1
Russian	0.7	1.3	4.6	1.8	2.6	4.1	2.4	1.6	1.5	1.1	1.3	0.7	0.9	0.5	0.8	1.3	0.9
Scandinavian	2.1	7.2	5.9	7.9	9.1	10.0	9.9	6.0	12.7	10.7	4.9	12.2	5.8	4.2	6.4	8.6	8.3
Ukrainian	2.6	8.0	1.7	3.0	1.1	3.5	2.3	2.7	2.5	2.0	4.2	29.0	10.6	22.9	16.6	7.9	6.9
Other European	3.9	5.4	4.7	11.7	3.4	3.3	5.1	5.1	3.7	5.0	11.9	4.7	5.2	3.4	5.4	6.0	4.1
Asiatic Native	0.7	0.9	0.8	3.9	0.7	0.6	0.6	1.1	0.3	0.5	1.0	0.3	0.8	0.8	0.2	0.5	0.4
Indian and Eskimo	1.2	2.1	0.1	0.8	12.2	0.2	4.1	0.8	0.1	1.9	6.8	0.2	0.9	11.7	2.3	1.1	10.4
Other and not Stated	1.3	1.1	1.5	1.1	0.3	0.3	0.5	1.5	0.4	0.8	1.2	0.5	1.3	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.5

Source: Dominion Bureau of Statistics Catalogue 92-526

TABLE 3
GENERAL SUMMARY OF VITAL STATISTICS FOR CENSUS DIVISIONS, ALBERTA, 1968

Judicial Districts and Census Divisions	Population	Live Births		Marriages		Divorces	
		Legitimate		Rate ³		Rate ⁴	
		Number	Rate ¹	Number	Rate ²	Number	Rate
1 Medicine Hat	38,000	641	16.8	61	8.7		
2 Lethbridge	25,574	395	15.4	51	11.4	28	100.0
3 Fort MacLeod	83,000	1,432	17.2	115	8.0		
4 Hanna	37,760	604	15.9	51	7.8	81	210.0
5 Drumheller	31,000	483	15.5	119	19.8		
6 Calgary	2,640	40	15.1	6	13.0	4	150.0
7 Red Deer	14,000	200	14.2	12	5.6		
8 Edmonton	2,633	44	16.7	5	10.2	2	70.0
9 Wetaskiwin	36,000	553	15.3	65	10.5		
10 Peace River	4,698	79	16.8	11	10.9	2	40.0
11 Grande Prairie	403,900	6,969	17.2	962	12.1		
TOTALS	354,856	6,333	17.8	911	12.6	840	230.0
	40,000	598	14.9	36	5.7		
	85,000	1,352	15.9	183	11.9		
	26,730	475	17.7	51	2.5	64	230.0
	17,000	240	14.1	66	21.6		
	67,000	976	14.5	59	5.7		
	503,000	9,153	18.1	1,293	12.4		
	393,563	7,626	19.3	1,138	13.0	845	210.0
	6,154	87	14.1	14	13.9	12	190.0
	52,000	1,069	20.5	179	14.3		
	44,000	627	14.2	102	14.0		
	21,000	364	17.3	41	10.1		
	92,000	1,858	20.1	341	15.5		
	5,201	130	24.9	17	11.6	5	90.0
	11,605	291	25.0	30	9.3	23	190.0
TOTALS	1,526,000	26,335		3,614	11.9	1,906	123.5

1. Number of legitimate live births per 1,000 population
2. Percentage of live births that are illegitimate
3. Number of marriages per 1,000 population
4. Number of divorces per 100,000 population

Sources: ABS Municipal Affairs Census Figures,
Annual Report of the Department of
Health, Province of Alberta, 1968;
DBS Bulletin 91-206

TABLE 4

LIVE BIRTHS BY MEAN AGE OF MOTHER AND BIRTH ORDER, ALBERTA, 1968

<u>Birth Order</u>	<u>Mean Age of Mother</u>
First child	21.81
Second child	24.43
Third child	27.29
Fourth child	29.37
Fifth child	31.10
Sixth child	32.26
Seventh child	33.80
Eighth child	34.28
Ninth child	35.16
Tenth child	36.17

Source: ABS Annual Report of the Department of Health, including
Vital Statistics Division, 1968

TABLE 5
LIVE BIRTHS BY AGE OF MOTHER AND TOTAL BIRTH ORDER, ALBERTA, 1968

<u>Age of Mother</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cum. Percent</u>	<u>Age of Mother</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Percent</u>	<u>Cum. Percent</u>
13	22	0.00	0.00	27	1,592	5.28	68.41
14	22	.07	.07	28	1,413	4.68	73.09
15	115	.38	.45	29	1,203	3.99	77.98
16	324	1.07	1.52	30	1,081	3.58	81.56
17	699	2.31	3.83	31	903	2.99	84.55
18	1,254	4.15	7.98	32	785	2.60	87.15
19	1,738	5.76	13.74	33	695	2.30	89.45
20	2,127	7.05	20.79	34	639	2.11	91.56
21	2,385	7.91	28.70	35	552	1.83	93.39
22	2,135	7.08	35.78	36	462	1.53	94.92
23	2,200	7.29	43.07	37	410	1.35	96.27
24	2,171	7.20	50.27	38	367	1.21	97.48
25	2,058	6.82	57.09	39	275	.91	98.39
26	1,822	6.04	61.13	40	226	.74	99.13

TABLE 6

DIVORCES AND ANNULMENTS IN ALBERTA SINCE PASSING OF THE ACT, 1919-1968

YEAR	GRANTED TO HUSBAND		GRANTED TO WIFE		TOTAL	YEAR	GRANTED TO HUSBAND		GRANTED TO WIFE		TOTAL
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent			Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
1919	3	(50.0)	3	(50.0)	6	1944	245	(50.2)	243	(49.8)	488
1920	74	(74.0)	26	(26.0)	100	45	302	(52.5)	273	(47.5)	575
21	53	(58.9)	37	(41.1)	90	46	494	(50.7)	480	(49.3)	974
22	80	(62.0)	49	(39.0)	129	47	404	(45.8)	478	(54.2)	882
23	57	(64.0)	32	(36.0)	89	48	302	(45.8)	357	(54.2)	659
24	66	(55.5)	53	(44.5)	119	49	262	(44.1)	332	(55.9)	594
25	59	(58.4)	42	(41.6)	101	1950	249	(44.5)	311	(55.5)	560
26	79	(51.3)	75	(48.7)	154	51	255	(43.3)	334	(56.7)	589
27	83	(55.7)	66	(44.3)	149	52	239	(37.9)	391	(62.1)	630
28	91	(52.0)	84	(48.0)	175	53	228	(37.8)	375	(62.2)	603
29	77	(52.0)	71	(48.0)	148	54	224	(36.8)	384	(63.2)	608
1930	64	(42.4)	87	(57.6)	151	55	233	(37.2)	394	(62.8)	627
31	69	(44.2)	87	(55.8)	156	56	278	(40.4)	410	(59.6)	688
32	68	(45.6)	81	(54.4)	149	57	317	(43.7)	409	(56.3)	726
33	56	(41.5)	79	(58.5)	135	58	295	(39.2)	457	(60.8)	752
34	62	(36.9)	106	(63.1)	168	59	343	(40.3)	509	(59.7)	852
35	74	(35.4)	135	(64.6)	209	1960	399	(41.3)	566	(58.7)	965
36	74	(42.2)	135	(57.8)	209	61	381	(36.1)	675	(63.9)	1,056
37	102	(39.3)	139	(60.7)	241	62	411	(37.3)	690	(62.7)	1,101
38	105	(39.0)	162	(61.0)	267	63	513	(40.0)	769	(60.0)	1,282
39	104	(39.0)	163	(61.0)	267	64	504	(36.0)	896	(64.0)	1,400
40	119	(43.6)	154	(56.4)	273	65	474	(34.8)	888	(65.2)	1,362
41	135	(43.4)	176	(56.6)	311	66	539	(34.4)	1,028	(65.6)	1,567
42	179	(47.1)	201	(52.9)	380	67	630	(35.9)	1,127	(64.1)	1,757
43	190	(46.0)	223	(54.0)	413	68	653	(34.0)	1,266	(66.0)	1,919

Source: Annual Report of the Department of Health, Alberta, 1968.

mothers in Alberta reach the age of 20, nearly 60 per cent by age 25, and nearly 80 per cent by age 29. It is clear that the majority of women are through bearing children before they reach the age of 30. Given the fact that the average married couple have two children, it is important to emphasize that the average couple is through bearing children before the age of 25 and consequently can anticipate childless marriage once again by their middle 40's. This factor, combined with the length of life, has far-reaching implications for marital interaction.

It is of interest to note that there were 290 sets of twins, and 3 sets of triplets born in Alberta in 1968. Relative to probabilities, the chance of bearing twins is about 1 in 100 while the chance of bearing triplets is about 1 in 10,000 (Alberta Department of Health).

Divorces until the passing of the most recent Act could not be granted to both parties. Accordingly, either the husband or wife filed suit against the spouse. The decisions taken in Alberta between 1919 and the present are presented in Table 6. As can be seen, until 1929, husbands were more often granted divorces than their wives. They again gained a slight edge between 1944 and 1946. Since 1952, however, wives have continued to hold a distinctive edge. The proportion granted to wives has consistently climbed from 60 per cent in 1963 to an all-time high of 66 per cent in 1968.

Family Characteristics

Canada shares the North American ideal that every nuclear family should occupy a separate dwelling. Table 7 provides significant evidence that this norm is not only believed, it is practised. The majority (more than 80 per cent) of households are occupied by a single family. More than 15 per cent of the households are occupied by unmarried persons. In contrast, about 2 per cent of all households are occupied by two families, and less than 0.001 per cent are occupied by three or more families.

The variations by place of residence are apparent. More urban households than rural households are occupied by unmarried persons in both Canada and Alberta. Similarly, rural households have a larger proportion of single family occupants than urban households. It is of interest that there is no difference in household occupancy by two families between urban and rural households in Canada, but three-family households are more prevalent in rural areas of Alberta. Household occupancy also varies by census division. Census Divisions 4 and 9 have the highest proportion of households with unmarried occupants, while Census Division 12 has the lowest. The

TABLE 7

HOUSEHOLDS BY NUMBER OF FAMILIES BY URBAN-RURAL FOR CANADA,
ALBERTA, AND ALBERTA CENSUS DIVISIONS, 1966 (in percentages)

LOCALITY	NUMBER OF FAMILIES				
	0	1	2	3+	TOTAL
Canada	15.5	82.0	2.4	.10	5,180,473
Urban	16.2	81.2	2.4	.11	3,941,459
Rural	13.2	84.31	2.4	.07	1,239,014
Alberta	17.6	81.2	1.2	.03	393,707
Urban	18.2	80.6	1.2	.02	280,422
Rural	16.1	82.5	1.4	.05	113,285
Division 1	16.8	82.4	.70	-	11,166
2	15.5	83.2	1.2	.02	21,876
3	17.2	80.2	9.4	.26	7,041
4	20.1	77.1	.8	-	3,803
5	17.8	81.2	.9	.07	9,633
6	19.1	79.8	1.0	.01	105,478
7	16.9	82.4	.7	-	10,775
8	15.7	83.4	1.0	-	21,365
9	21.6	77.0	1.3	.05	5,187
10	17.8	81.1	1.1	.01	19,359
11	17.2	81.4	1.3	.03	128,699
12	14.8	82.7	2.3	.15	11,424
13	17.9	80.6	1.5	-	11,785
14	17.0	81.5	1.5	-	5,104
15	16.8	81.9	1.3	.04	21,012

Source: Catalogue No. 93-604, Vol. II (2-4), June, 1968

Red Deer area (Census Division 8) has the highest number of single family households while the Hanna area (Census Division 4) has the lowest number. The Ft. McLeod area (Census Division 3) has nearly nine times as many two-family households and three times as many three-family households as most of the other census divisions. This would appear to reflect the relatively high percentage of Indian households in the area.

The distribution of families in households, in this case ignoring unmarried persons except in circumstances where they live with families, is presented in Table 8. Additional insight concerning the distribution of persons within households in differing areas can be seen. In Canada, two family+ households contain more kin-related persons in rural areas and more non-kin-related persons in urban areas. Alberta, in contrast, has nearly two and one half times as many non-kin-related persons living in households in rural areas than in urban areas (1.21 versus 0.52 per cent). The strength of this relationship is most visible in Census Division 3, where nearly 8 per cent are not maintaining their own household. In this area the extra persons are about half kin and half non-kin. Of interest as well is the fact that the Hanna area (Census Division 4) contains nearly twice as many non-kin-related household persons as kin-related persons (2.34 versus 1.18 per cent) while Census Divisions 12 and 13 contain, respectively, five times and four times as many kin-related as non-kin-related household occupants. Again, some evidence is provided for the over-representation, relative to other ethnic groups, of kin-related persons in Ukrainian, French, and Indian households.

Further evidence of the variation between urban and rural families can be explored relative to the number of persons in families and the number of children (see Table 9). There are more rural families in both Canada and Alberta with five or more persons than urban families. Indeed, families with three or more children under 24 years of age are proportionally over-represented in rural areas. Census Divisions 12 and 15 have the highest percentage of families with five or more persons, while Census Divisions 1, 6, and 9 have the highest percentage of families with four or less persons. Census Division 9 has the highest proportion of families without children. The Calgary and Edmonton areas (Census Divisions 6 and 11) have the most families with one or two children.

Marital Status

The sex and marital status of family heads for Alberta and Canada are presented in Table 10. Relative to *all* urban family heads in Canada, the majority are headed by males (about 93 per cent).

TABLE 8
FAMILIES BY TYPE FOR CANADA, ALBERTA, URBAN AND RURAL, AND ALBERTA CENSUS DIVISIONS, 1966
(in percentages)

TYPE OF FAMILY	CANADA TOTAL	CANADA URBAN	RURAL	TOTAL	ALBERTA URBAN	RURAL	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Maintaining Own Household	96.01	96.00	96.02	97.62	97.96	96.80	98.09	96.82	92.51	96.46	96.93	98.04	97.92	98.28	97.41	97.91	97.75	96.11	97.26	97.17	97.76
Not Maintaining Own Household	3.98	3.99	3.97	2.37	2.03	3.19	1.90	3.17	7.48	3.53	3.06	1.95	2.07	1.71	2.58	2.08	2.24	3.88	2.73	2.82	2.23
Related	2.97	2.83	3.41	1.64	1.50	1.97	1.12	1.54	3.49	1.18	1.50	1.40	1.19	1.24	1.67	1.58	1.70	3.22	2.15	1.92	1.76
Not Related	1.00	1.15	0.56	0.73	0.52	1.21	0.78	1.62	3.98	2.34	1.55	0.55	0.87	0.47	0.90	0.49	0.53	0.66	0.58	0.89	0.46

Source: DBS Publication Catalogue 93-613, Vol II (2-3), March 1969.

TABLE 9

FAMILIES BY NUMBER OF PERSONS AND NUMBER OF CHILDREN
24 YEARS AND UNDER AT HOME, FOR CANADA, ALBERTA, URBAN,
RURAL, AND ALBERTA CENSUS DIVISIONS, 1966 (in percentages)

LOCATION	FAMILIES BY NO. OF PERSONS		FAMILIES BY NO. OF CHILDREN AT HOME UNDER 24			TOTAL
	4 Or Less	5+	0	1-2	3+	
Canada	69.1	30.9	28.9	40.0	31.1	4,526,266
Urban	71.6	28.4	29.3	42.0	28.7	3,413,178
Rural	61.6	38.4	27.9	33.8	38.3	1,113,088
Alberta	68.1	31.9	27.4	40.1	32.5	331,158
Urban	70.5	29.5	27.5	42.2	30.3	233,252
Rural	62.2	37.8	27.2	35.1	37.7	97,906
Division 1	71.7	28.3	31.3	40.0	28.7	9,431
2	67.3	32.7	29.5	37.4	33.1	19,022
3	63.4	36.6	28.2	34.8	37.0	6,296
4	65.1	34.9	27.4	37.5	35.1	3,113
5	66.8	33.2	30.7	36.1	33.2	8,150
6	71.3	28.7	27.7	42.8	29.5	86,620
7	65.9	34.1	30.0	35.8	34.2	9,105
8	66.2	33.8	27.5	38.1	34.4	18,292
9	72.6	27.4	33.1	39.0	27.9	4,182
10	68.8	31.2	32.4	36.1	31.5	16,209
11	69.0	31.0	26.1	42.1	31.8	108,570
12	57.1	42.9	22.6	34.5	42.9	10,079
13	65.6	34.4	30.1	35.5	34.4	9,905
14	62.7	37.3	24.5	38.1	37.4	4,359
15	58.4	41.6	22.3	35.8	41.9	17,825

Source: DBS Catalogues 93-609, 93-610

TABLE 10
FAMILIES BY MARITAL STATUS AND SEX OF HEAD FOR CANADA, ALBERTA
URBAN AND RURAL, AND ALBERTA CENSUS DIVISIONS, 1966 (in percentages)

Locality	All Family Heads			Married Family Heads			Widowed		Divorced		
	Totals	Male	Female	Total	Husband and Wife at Home	Husband Only	Wife Only	Male	Female	Male	Female
Canada	4,526,266	4,225,883	300,383	4,266,432	4,154,381	24,511	87,540	40,143	186,807	3,494	18,621
Urban	3,413,178	93.0 %	7.0 %	94.2 %	91.5 %	0.5 %	2.2 %	0.8 %	4.2 %	0.1 %	0.5 %
Rural	1,113,088	94.5	5.5	94.2	92.5	0.6	1.2	1.2	3.9	0.1	0.1
Alberta	331,158	309,233	21,925	313,474	304,619	1,628	7,227	2,239	11,169	513	2,780
Urban	233,252	92.8	7.2	94.6	91.6	0.4	2.6	0.5	3.3	0.2	1.1
Rural	97,906	94.8	5.2	94.8	92.8	0.7	1.3	1.1	3.6	0.1	0.2
Division 1	9,431	94.0	6.0	95.3	92.7	0.4	2.2	0.7	3.2	0.1	0.5
2	19,022	93.9	6.1	94.9	92.7	0.4	1.9	0.7	3.4	0.1	0.7
3	6,296	93.6	6.4	94.5	91.8	0.6	2.0	1.0	3.8	0.1	0.4
4	3,113	94.2	5.8	94.4	91.8	1.0	1.3	1.3	4.0	0.1	0.3
5	8,150	94.9	5.1	95.1	93.1	0.6	1.4	1.0	3.3	0.1	0.2
6	86,620	93.0	7.0	94.7	91.8	0.4	2.4	0.5	3.1	0.2	1.3
7	9,105	94.7	5.3	95.0	93.0	0.6	1.3	0.8	3.6	0.2	0.2
8	18,292	93.6	6.4	94.7	92.1	0.5	2.2	0.7	3.4	0.2	0.5
9	4,182	93.5	6.5	93.9	91.4	0.7	1.8	1.0	3.9	0.1	0.4
10	16,209	94.0	6.0	94.1	92.4	0.4	1.4	1.1	4.3	0.1	0.2
11	108,570	92.8	7.2	94.6	91.6	0.4	2.5	0.6	3.3	0.2	1.1
12	10,079	93.8	6.2	94.6	91.6	0.8	2.2	1.0	3.7	0.1	0.1
13	9,905	94.0	6.0	94.3	92.0	0.7	1.6	1.0	4.0	0.2	0.3
14	4,359	95.5	4.5	96.3	93.9	0.7	1.7	0.6	2.3	0.2	0.4
15	17,825	94.1	5.9	94.7	92.3	0.7	1.7	0.8	3.4	0.1	0.4

Source: DBS Catalogue No. 93-611

Among urban *married* family heads, 91.5 per cent represent homes where both the husband and wife are present; in 0.5 per cent there are husbands only, and in 2.2 per cent there are wives only. More than five times as many divorced family heads are female as male. It is apparent, accordingly, that widowers and male divorcees remarry more often than their female counterparts. The urban pattern differs somewhat from the rural pattern. There is a higher proportion of rural married couples, a lower proportion of rural female heads of family, a higher proportion of rural widowers, and an equal proportion of male and female divorced heads of family in rural Canada. Similar patterns are observed for both urban and rural Alberta. The primary exception lies in the fact that there are twice as many divorced male and female heads in urban Alberta as in urban Canada.

The variation among the census divisions is minimal relative to married couples and all family heads. There are more than twice as many families with husbands alone as their head in Census Division 4 as in Census Divisions 6 and 11. Similarly, Census Divisions 6 and 11 have twice as many wife-only married heads as Census Division 4. Widows are over-represented in Census Division 10 (4.3 per cent) and under-represented in Census Division 14 (2.3 per cent); widowers are over-represented in Census Division 4 (1.3 per cent); female divorced heads are 13 times as prevalent in Census Division 6 (1.3 per cent) as in Census Division 12 (0.1 per cent).

The proportion of single, married, widowed, and divorced may be expected to vary systematically by age. Widowhood is less common at younger ages, while divorce is typically more common in early marriage. Accordingly, data to test these and other assumptions are provided in Table 11.

It is first apparent that more than half of the population of both Alberta and Canada is single, and nearly 70 per cent of the single population below the age of 15. The majority of the population over the age of 15 are married (about 67 per cent). As demonstrated in the preceding analysis, the proportion of the population divorced is consistently twice as high in Alberta as it is in Canada for urban, rural, non-farm, and rural-farm populations.

In the 15-19 year-old age group, while only the minority married (5.5 per cent), it is interesting to note that there are only about half as many rural marrieds in this age group as urban marrieds (3.2 per cent versus 6.1 per cent). The married population increases radically in the 20-24 year-old age group. Again there are fewer rural marrieds than urban marrieds. The difference apparent in the 15-19 year-old group, however, is minimized. Although the overall percentage of divorces is less than 1 per cent, it may be emphasized that the

TABLE 11
MARITAL STATUS BY AGE, URBAN AND RURAL,
FOR CANADA AND ALBERTA, 1966 (in percentages)

Marital Status and Location	Totals		Over 15		Alberta by age						
	Canada	Alberta	Canada	Alberta	15-19	20-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	65+
Totals	20,014,880	1,463,203	13,423,123	952,437	1,837,725	128,999	186,681	184,532	145,224	100,986	104,010
Single	51.74 %	51.71 %	28.04 %	25.81 %	94.45 %	50.40 %	14.07 %	8.51 %	8.20 %	8.92 %	9.55 %
Married	43.58	43.85	64.98	67.36	5.51	42.74	84.57	88.97	86.34	78.52	55.42
Widowed	4.34	3.87	6.48	5.94	.01	.09	.37	1.31	4.07	11.39	34.59
Divorced	.32	.56	.48	.86	.01	.12	.97	1.20	1.37	1.15	.63
Urban	14,726,759	1,007,407	10,092,045	664,861	85,530	76,900	139,646	131,034	96,083	63,995	71,673
Single	50.34	50.32	27.53	24.73	93.88	49.42	13.0	7.47	7.41	7.79	1.09
Married	44.66	44.75	65.17	67.81	6.06	50.01	85.44	89.56	86.19	77.62	53.10
Widowed	4.61	4.21	6.73	6.37	.01	.11	.40	1.43	4.64	13.18	37.63
Divorced	.38	.70	.55	1.06	.02	.44	1.20	1.53	1.76	1.39	.65
Rural (Non-Farm)	3,374,407	178,198	2,119,398	113,059	15,323	11,432	20,070	18,862	16,383	13,851	17,318
Single	54.66	53.73	27.81	27.08	93.38	47.71	16.14	11.59	10.38	12.45	1.12
Married	40.95	41.36	65.20	65.20	6.60	52.07	83.15	86.18	83.80	74.26	57.43
Widowed	4.19	4.53	6.67	7.14	0.00	.01	.43	1.60	4.73	12.19	30.10
Divorced	.19	.36	.32	.58	0.00	.01	.40	.61	1.07	1.09	.63
Rural (Farm)	1,913,714	277,598	1,211,680	174,517	28,146	13,673	169,965	34,816	32,758	23,140	15,019
Single	57.38	55.43	32.69	29.10	96.74	58.15	18.46	10.76	9.43	9.93	1.10
Married	39.92	42.16	63.06	67.06	3.24	41.68	81.11	88.23	88.10	83.55	64.19
Widowed	2.58	2.22	4.09	3.53	0.00	.05	.21	.70	2.07	5.96	25.25
Divorced	.09	.18	.01	.03	0.00	.09	.20	.29	.39	.54	.59

proportion of urban divorces is nearly four times as high as rural divorces in Alberta (0.70 per cent versus 0.18 per cent). Married status reaches its highest point between 35 and 44 years of age in both urban and rural Alberta. Divorced status reaches its highest point between 45 and 54 years of age, at this point, also, more than four times as high in urban as in rural Alberta. Interestingly, the percentage married beyond the age of 65 is considerably lower in urban Alberta (53.1 per cent) than in rural Alberta (64.2 per cent), while the percentage widowed is considerably higher (37.6 per cent versus 25.3 per cent). The difference in the latter is consistent at all age levels, indicating that widows apparently move from rural to urban areas.

Tables 12 and 13 show the relationship between marital status and age and type of family, number of persons, number of children at home, children at home by age, type of dwelling, and whether the dwelling is owned or rented. Due to the large amount of information in these tables, they will be viewed in some detail.

Sex and Marital Status of Head

Marital status is related to the separate maintenance of a household. Nearly all (98.4 per cent) married couples maintain their own household. Married couples are followed, in order, by widows (95.3 per cent), divorced persons (86.9 per cent), male single parents (84.2 per cent), female single parents (82.3 per cent), and those who have *never* married (71.9 per cent). Widowed females, divorced females, and never married females more often maintain a separate residence than do their male counterparts.

Nearly 34 per cent of husband and wife families have five or more persons in the family. In contrast, less than 10 per cent of widowed families contain this many persons. About one-third as many divorced families as husband and wife families contain five or more persons (12.9 per cent versus 33.5 per cent). Female divorced families are twice as numerous as male divorced families (14 per cent versus 7 per cent). Relative to the number of children at home, the never married are the highest group with one and two children (71.3 per cent). The difference between male and female heads never married (48.7 per cent and 78.4 per cent) reveals that unmarried females have considerably more children than unmarried males. It may be noted that *never married* in the Census may include unwed mothers, common law marriages, communal families, guardians, and adults who say they are unmarried. Indeed, the census taker in this regard records whatever he is told. Although it is possible for unmarried people to say they are married and married people to say they are unmarried, it is likely that error in either case is minimal. Relative to divorced and

TABLE 12
FAMILIES BY MARITAL STATUS, AGE AND SEX OF HEAD, SHOWING FAMILY SIZE, TYPE AND COMPOSITION, ALBERTA, 1966
(in percentages)

Marital Status, Age and Sex Of Head	Total	Type of Family		Families by Number of Persons		Families by Number of Children at Home			Children at Home by Age			
		Maintaining Own Household	Not Maintaining Own Household	2-4	5+	0	1-2	3+	Under 6		6-14	15-18 19-24
Husband & Wife Under 25	304,619	98.35	1.64	66.45	33.54	27.83	38.96	33.20	33.26		46.61	14.04
	16,885	93.75	6.24	96.01	3.98	43.23	52.77	3.98	97.50		2.08	0.20
	73,678	97.68	2.31	63.73	36.26	14.61	49.14	36.24	65.74		33.68	0.47
	61,491	99.11	.88	42.05	57.94	6.83	35.23	57.92	27.02		59.19	11.90
	41,619	99.26	.73	62.34	37.65	17.76	45.04	37.18	10.57		47.10	28.37
	32,817	99.07	.92	87.30	12.69	52.74	35.68	11.57	5.41		36.10	31.74
	78,129	97.79	2.20	97.10	2.89	86.97	10.84	2.17	6.85		28.74	29.92
Husband only Under 25	1,628	84.15	15.84	86.67	13.32	10.81	65.04	24.14	20.05		45.82	22.04
	53	26.41	73.58	94.33	5.66	13.20	69.81	16.98	83.95		11.11	2.46
	231	67.09	32.90	85.28	14.71	.86	69.26	29.87	56.03		42.12	1.63
	418	85.16	14.83	76.55	23.44	0.00	61.72	38.27	16.14		61.12	19.29
	452	88.93	11.06	87.61	12.38	3.09	73.23	23.67	7.71		1.72	31.65
	285	92.98	7.01	92.28	7.71	14.03	71.57	14.38	4.19		35.43	32.63
	189	94.17	5.82	97.88	2.11	59.78	36.50	3.70	11.21		19.62	33.64
Wife Only Under 25	7,227	82.31	17.68	78.95	21.04	5.17	56.82	37.99	29.25		48.10	15.59
	891	54.76	45.25	95.73	4.26	0.67	82.26	17.05	92.54		7.19	0.12
	2,023	79.04	20.95	72.12	27.87	0.24	47.40	52.34	42.86		55.40	1.55
	2,195	87.97	12.02	69.06	30.93	0.36	49.33	50.29	14.91		57.28	22.55
	1,448	90.74	9.25	85.49	14.50	3.93	68.78	27.27	5.08		41.38	32.06
	446	91.03	8.96	94.61	5.38	24.66	67.93	7.39	7.70		16.95	34.48
	224	94.19	5.80	97.32	2.67	83.92	14.73	1.33	9.80		29.41	27.45

Source: DBS Catalogue No. 93-612, Vol. II (2-12) October, 1969

TABLE 12 (continued)

FAMILIES BY MARITAL STATUS, AGE AND SEX OF HEAD, SHOWING FAMILY SIZE, TYPE AND COMPOSITION, ALBERTA, 1966
(in percentages)

Marital Status, Age and Sex of Head	Type of Family		Families Number of Persons	Families by No. of Children at Home	Children at home by Age							
	Maintaining Own Household	Not Maintaining Own Household										
	Total											
Widowed	13,408	95.30	4.69	90.58	9.41	38.98	44.43	16.57	10.31	40.27	27.46	21.94
Under 25	73	67.12	32.87	89.04	10.95	1.36	68.49	30.13	89.26	8.05	0.67	2.01
25-34	556	87.05	12.94	72.48	27.51	0.17	49.64	50.17	36.34	60.90	2.49	0.25
35-44	1,739	93.73	6.26	72.85	27.14	0.23	51.12	48.64	11.07	55.47	25.13	8.31
45-54	3,187	95.41	4.58	87.44	12.55	4.89	70.28	24.81	3.33	36.73	34.48	25.44
55-64	2,995	96.09	3.90	95.19	4.80	32.82	59.73	7.44	5.19	18.55	31.77	44.47
65+	4,858	96.66	3.33	98.25	1.74	84.02	14.69	1.27	12.95	26.82	25.27	34.94
Male	2,239	93.38	6.61	90.75	9.24	39.03	45.06	15.89	9.23	42.15	27.34	21.27
Under 25	6	50.00	50.00	100.00	0.00	16.66	66.66	16.66	75.00	0.00	12.50	12.50
25-34	58	63.79	36.20	89.65	10.34	0.00	65.51	34.48	44.00	55.20	0.80	0.00
35-44	211	88.15	11.84	73.45	26.54	0.94	52.13	46.91	12.07	66.96	16.69	4.26
45-54	427	95.78	4.21	84.30	15.69	2.10	66.51	31.38	3.74	43.34	33.78	19.12
55-64	503	95.22	4.77	91.65	8.34	20.07	66.00	13.91	4.79	29.19	33.85	32.15
65+	1,034	94.48	5.51	96.51	3.48	73.59	23.30	3.09	13.58	26.05	24.27	36.08
Female	11,169	95.68	4.31	90.55	9.44	38.97	44.31	60.71	10.53	39.90	27.48	22.07
Under 25	67	68.65	31.34	88.05	11.94	0.00	68.65	31.34	90.07	8.51	0.00	1.41
25-34	498	89.75	10.24	70.48	29.51	0.20	47.79	52.00	35.67	61.40	2.64	0.27
35-44	1,528	94.50	5.49	72.77	27.22	0.13	50.98	48.88	10.94	53.99	26.22	8.83
45-54	2,760	95.36	4.63	87.93	12.06	5.32	70.86	23.80	3.26	35.52	34.61	26.59
55-64	2,492	96.26	3.73	95.90	4.09	35.39	58.46	6.13	5.31	15.29	31.14	48.25
65+	3,824	97.25	2.74	98.71	1.28	86.84	12.36	0.78	12.51	27.35	25.96	34.15
Divorced	3,293	86.94	13.05	87.09	12.90	2.73	68.69	28.57	21.37	53.25	17.63	7.75
Male	513	84.99	15.00	92.98	7.00	4.09	76.60	19.29	10.63	53.73	25.22	10.40
Female	2,780	87.30	12.69	86.00	13.99	2.48	67.23	30.28	22.98	53.16	16.49	7.35
Never Married	983	71.92	28.07	89.11	10.88	12.30	71.31	16.37	55.79	29.76	8.85	5.59
Male	234	68.37	31.62	84.18	15.81	38.46	48.71	12.82	30.85	36.80	19.33	13.01
Female	749	73.03	26.96	90.65	9.34	4.13	78.37	17.48	61.23	28.22	6.56	3.97

Source: DBS Catalogue No. 93-612, Vol. II (2-12) October, 1969

TABLE 13

HOUSEHOLDS BY MARITAL STATUS, AGE AND SEX OF HOUSEHOLD HEAD
SHOWING STRUCTURAL TYPE OF DWELLING AND TENURE, ALBERTA, 1966
(in percentages)

Marital Status by Age and Sex of Head	Type of Dwelling			Type of Dwelling and Tenure							
	Single Detached	Single Attached	Apartment	Single Detached		Single Attached		Apartment		All Dwellings	
				Owned	Rented	Owned	Rented	Owned	Rented	Owned	Rented
<u>Husband and Wife</u>	80.83	5.19	12.65	83.56	16.43	30.03	69.96	23.30	76.69	73.23	26.76
Under 25	40.25	9.17	46.37	45.06	54.93	7.62	92.37	1.23	98.76	22.91	77.08
25-34	71.53	8.12	17.27	70.64	29.36	18.30	81.69	9.19	90.80	56.10	43.89
35-44	86.95	4.65	7.43	84.36	15.62	31.37	68.62	32.98	67.01	78.14	21.85
45-54	88.96	3.36	7.15	89.01	10.98	6.58	53.41	40.02	59.97	84.08	15.91
55-64	86.52	3.01	9.94	91.50	8.49	64.06	35.93	47.57	52.42	86.30	13.69
65+	83.98	3.43	12.30	93.78	6.21	50.77	49.22	50.81	49.18	87.01	12.98
<u>Husband Only</u>	58.65	4.68	34.23	77.79	22.20	43.25	56.74	10.61	89.38	52.84	47.15
Under 25	23.63	7.27	61.81	58.97	41.02	8.33	91.66	2.94	97.05	18.78	81.21
25-34	42.51	5.22	48.58	63.45	36.54	18.91	81.08	3.19	96.80	31.35	68.64
35-44	51.89	5.49	39.34	71.19	33.27	37.50	62.50	8.07	91.92	41.92	58.07
45-54	57.61	4.18	35.05	76.84	23.15	37.50	62.50	9.51	90.48	51.60	48.39
55-64	64.53	4.10	29.43	81.19	18.80	53.03	46.96	14.37	85.62	60.17	39.82
65+	68.28	4.63	26.29	85.20	14.79	60.24	39.75	17.62	82.37	66.05	33.94
<u>Wife Only</u>	52.70	8.36	38.32	57.25	42.74	16.73	83.26	8.29	91.70	35.23	64.76
Under 25	26.61	10.96	61.77	18.18	81.81	2.94	97.05	0.52	99.47	5.80	94.19
25-34	48.03	11.16	39.96	29.80	70.19	8.41	91.58	1.79	98.20	16.63	83.36
35-44	53.84	10.57	35.27	49.15	50.84	12.65	87.34	5.14	94.85	29.22	70.07
45-54	54.56	6.85	37.85	62.60	37.39	26.24	73.75	10.52	89.47	40.52	59.47
55-64	59.23	3.98	35.88	80.49	19.50	42.85	57.14	21.31	78.68	57.68	42.31
65+	63.89	4.65	31.11	87.52	12.47	40.47	59.52	18.14	81.85	63.67	36.32

Source: DBS Catalogue No. 93-608 Vol. II May, 1969

TABLE 13 (continued)

HOUSEHOLDS BY MARITAL STATUS, AGE AND SEX OF HOUSHOLD HEAD
SHOWING STRUCTURAL TYPE OF DWELLING AND TENURE, ALBERTA, 1966

(in percentages)

Marital Status by Age and Sex of Head	Type of Dwelling			Type of Dwelling and Tenure							
	Single Detached	Single Attached	Apartment	Single Detached		Single Attached		Apartment		All Dwellings	
				Owned	Rented	Owned	Rented	Owned	Rented	Owned	Rented
<u>Widowed</u>	71.38	3.62	24.54	89.99	10.00	41.31	58.68	24.17	75.82	72.05	27.94
Under 25	43.42	6.57	44.73	57.57	42.42	20.00	80.00	0.00	100	31.57	68.42
25-34	65.27	7.27	26.72	70.47	29.52	22.50	77.50	11.56	88.43	51.27	48.72
35-44	72.46	5.54	21.07	82.56	17.43	24.34	75.65	18.53	81.46	65.91	34.08
45-54	71.77	4.40	23.32	87.68	12.31	39.71	60.28	24.29	75.70	70.78	29.21
55-64	69.88	3.53	26.04	90.57	9.42	49.31	50.68	28.93	71.06	73.00	26.99
65+	72.01	3.19	24.45	91.51	8.48	42.45	57.54	23.19	76.80	73.21	26.78
<u>Male</u>	77.04	2.42	19.66	89.92	10.07	53.19	46.80	22.22	77.77	75.64	24.35
Under 25	52.94	0.00	47.05	77.77	22.22	0.00	0.00	0.00	100	41.17	58.82
25-34	66.66	3.03	30.30	84.09	15.90	0.00	100	15.00	85.00	60.60	39.39
35-44	75.95	3.83	18.81	76.60	23.39	9.09	9.09	9.25	90.74	61.32	38.67
45-54	76.76	2.84	19.34	85.35	14.64	31.57	68.42	14.72	85.27	70.16	29.83
55-64	77.16	2.91	18.73	89.16	10.83	58.97	41.02	21.51	78.48	75.44	24.55
65+	77.37	2.17	19.76	91.46	8.53	59.82	40.17	24.27	75.72	77.42	22.57
<u>Female</u>	69.92	3.92	25.80	90.01	9.98	39.42	60.57	24.56	75.43	71.12	28.87
Under 25	40.67	8.47	44.06	50.00	50.00	20.00	80.00	0.00	100	28.81	71.18
24-34	65.08	7.85	26.23	68.57	31.42	23.68	76.31	11.02	88.97	50.00	50.00
35-44	71.90	5.81	21.43	83.57	16.42	25.96	74.03	19.84	80.15	66.64	33.35
45-54	70.97	4.65	23.96	88.08	11.91	40.51	59.48	25.52	74.47	70.87	29.12
55-64	68.49	3.65	27.45	90.87	9.12	47.84	52.15	29.90	70.09	72.53	27.46
65+	70.29	3.52	25.97	91.52	8.47	38.97	61.02	22.92	77.07	71.84	28.15
<u>Divorced</u>	47.83	6.81	44.34	67.05	32.94	19.58	30.41	9.35	90.64	38.26	61.73
Male	50.92	4.30	42.57	77.99	22.00	34.88	65.11	11.16	88.83	47.42	52.57
Female	46.16	8.17	45.30	60.52	39.47	15.23	84.76	8.42	91.57	33.30	66.69
<u>Never Married</u>	40.28	3.68	54.38	74.49	25.50	22.13	77.86	3.26	96.73	33.70	66.29
Male	51.23	3.47	42.92	75.24	24.75	26.53	73.46	3.96	96.03	42.77	57.22
Female	20.45	4.07	75.14	71.07	28.92	15.35	84.64	2.54	97.45	17.27	82.72

Source: DBS Catalogue No. 93-608 Vol. II (2-8) May, 1969

widowed status, it is apparent that there are few childless divorced family heads (2.7 per cent) but more childless widowed family heads (39 per cent), the latter owing to the fact that widowhood generally does not occur until after the children have left home. The proportion of one- or two-child families to married couples is considerably lower than it is to families with a divorced family head (39 per cent versus 69 per cent). The distribution of children by age also varies somewhat, never-married persons having the highest percentage (55.8 per cent) and widowed family heads having the lowest percentage of children under 6 years of age (10.3 per cent). Again, divorced family heads have fewer children under six years of age than do married couples. The percentage of divorced family heads and married couples having children under the age of 14, however, differs little.

It is clear from Table 13 that the majority of married couples and widowed family heads live in single detached dwellings (81 per cent and 71 per cent, respectively). The majority of divorced family heads are fairly evenly divided between single detached dwellings and apartments. Never-married females more often live in apartments (75.1 per cent). The largest groups living in single attached dwellings are female-only heads and divorced female heads (about 8 per cent). Most of the families living in single detached dwellings own their own homes. Female-only family heads and divorced female family heads less frequently own their own homes (57.2 per cent and 60.5 per cent, respectively). Although owners of apartments are in the minority, more than twice as many widowed family heads and married couples own apartments as persons of other marital statuses.

Marital Status by Age of Head

The patterns identified above also vary by the age of the head of the family. In Table 13, for example, it can be seen that nearly all married couples regardless of age (93.7 per cent to 97.8 per cent) maintain a separate residence, whereas in families where only the husband is at home, the percentage maintaining a separate residence varies widely by age (from 26.4 per cent to 94.1 per cent). These relationships are graphically illustrated in Figure 1. Under age 25, the disparities are apparent. Similarly, convergence is apparent at age 65. Young husbands, young wives, and young widows, in that order, share a household far more often than young couples. Figure 2 illustrates the relationship between marital status and age by number of children at home. As would be expected, young married couples have more children than their reproductive counterparts. Between ages 35 and 44, a larger proportion of married couples apparently have three or more children than do widowed or

FIGURE 1

PERCENT MAINTAINING OWN HOUSEHOLD
ALBERTA: 1966

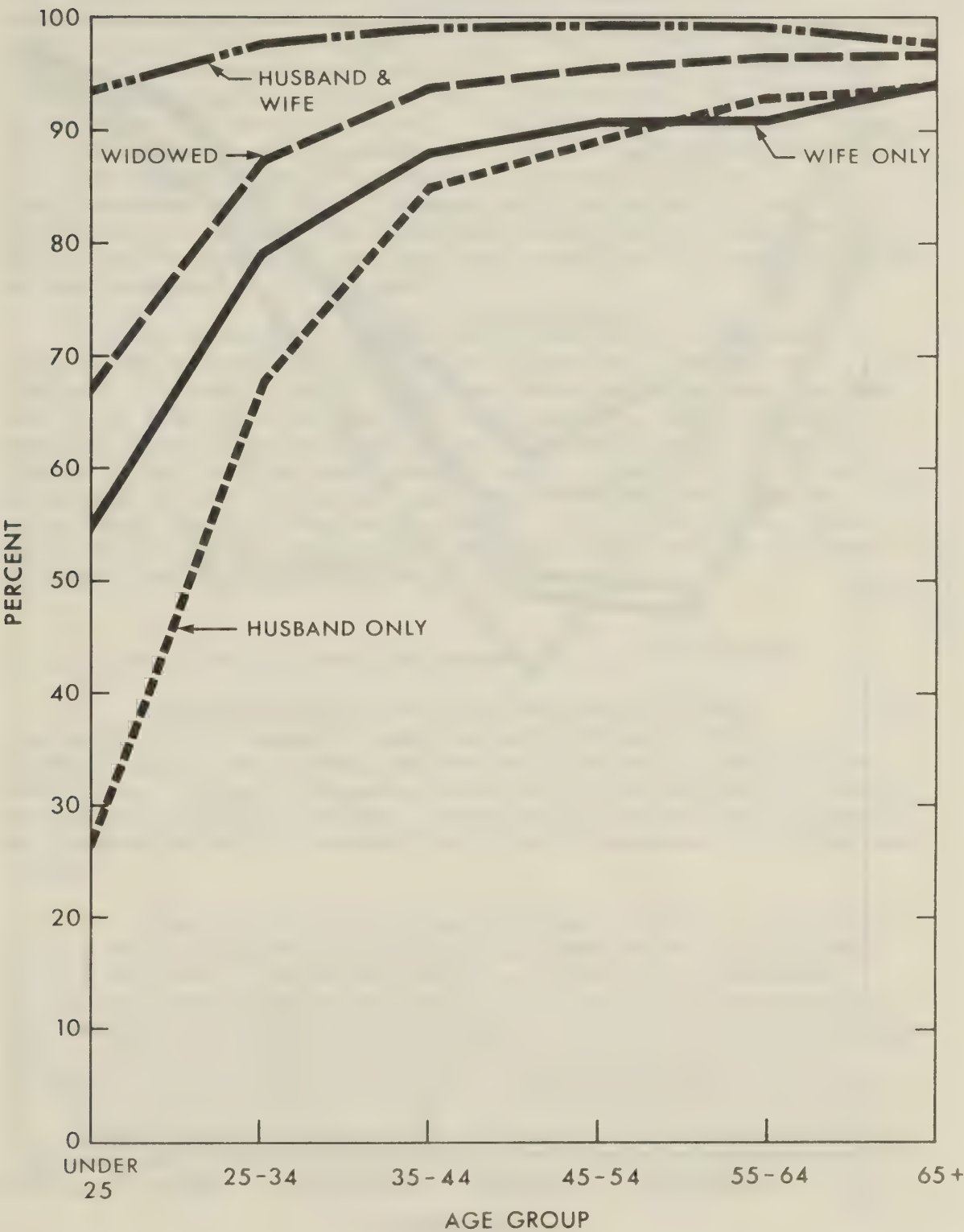
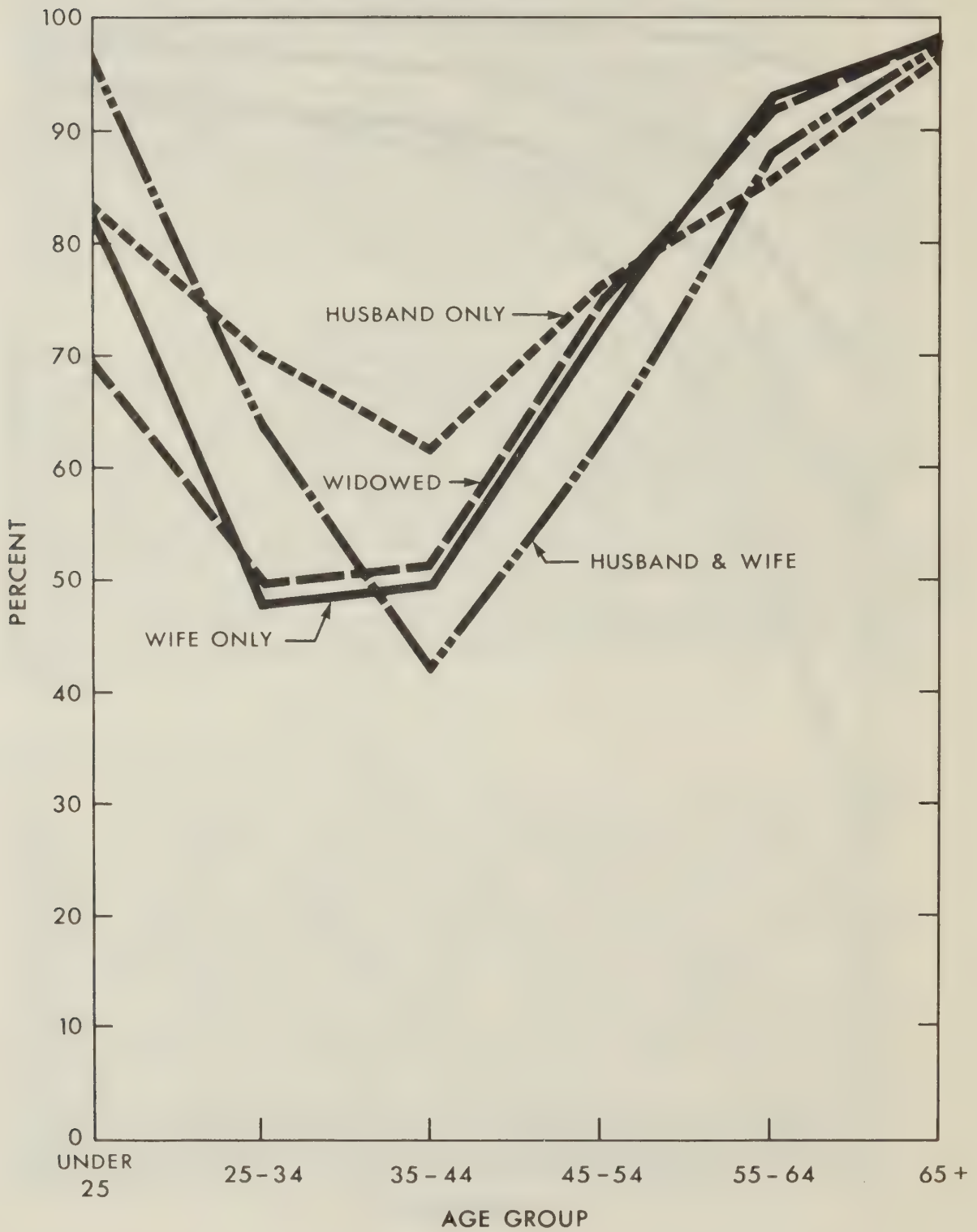


FIGURE 2

PERCENT WITH TWO CHILDREN OR LESS AT HOME
ALBERTA: 1966



husband- or wife-only family heads. Similarly, husband-only families have proportionally fewer families with two or less children than either widowed or wife-only families. Figure 3 provides additional insight into type of housing by age and marital status. Under the age of 25, the majority do not live in single detached dwellings (23 per cent to 43 per cent). Again, married couples and widowed family heads more often live in single family dwellings than do husband- or wife-only families. The disparity is greatest during the 45-54 year age period, where nearly 90 per cent of husband and wife families and about 55 per cent of wife-only families live in single detached dwellings. Although not illustrated in Figure 3, it can be seen in Table 13 that more than three times as many wife-only families as husband-wife families live in apartments at age 65 (31 per cent compared to 10 per cent).

The ownership of single family dwellings is compared in Figure 4 for married couples, widows, husband-only, and wife-only families. Wife-only family heads aged 24 or less own their own homes less often than the other marital status groups. The range of ownership varies from a low of 18 per cent for wife-only heads to a high of 59 per cent for husband-only heads. Apparently, a higher percentage of married couples under 25 rent their homes than do husband-only heads of families. Finally, as illustrated in Figure 4, there is considerable convergence over time such that the differences in single dwelling ownership are minimal at age 65.

Marital Status, Sex of Head, and Occupation

The occupations in which men and women work vary considerably. For example, women who work are most involved in clerical occupations whereas men are most involved in semi-skilled occupations. It may be expected also that these patterns will vary by marital status and sex of head. Accordingly, Table 14 and Figure 5 are intended to help illustrate the differing patterns in Alberta and Canada.

It will be helpful to look at Figure 5 first. As can be seen, there are only minimal differences among males of differing marital statuses. Single males are least involved in managerial professions and married males are most involved. More divorced males are involved in managerial occupations. Similarly, divorced males are most involved in service and recreational occupations and least involved in semi-skilled occupations. Single males are most involved in semi-skilled professions. Females, in contrast, are considerably more varied in their occupational affiliations for differing marital statuses. While there are only minimal differences apparent in managerial, sales, transportation, and laboring occupations,

TABLE 14

OCCUPATION BY MARITAL STATUS AND SEX FOR CANADA AND ALBERTA, 1961

(in percentages)

Occupations	CANADA							
	Single		Married		Widowed		Divorced	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
All Occupations	1,131,665	747,267	3,487,341	879,141	69,188	117,592	17,324	22,332
Managerial	2.86%	1.52%	12.63%	4.19%	9.25%	6.95%	10.32%	5.15%
Professional/Technical	7.61	20.99	7.64	11.58	4.00	9.72	6.55	19.59
Teachers	1.82	9.20	1.20	5.85	0.53	4.33	0.77	2.92
Professional Principals	0.30	0.24	0.15	6.04	0.06	0.04	0.05	0.05
Classroom Teachers	1.42	8.59	0.93	5.59	0.39	4.04	0.63	2.69
Health Professions	0.50	7.84	1.02	3.78	0.79	2.99	1.03	3.30
Physicians	0.17	0.07	0.50	0.09	0.33	0.03	0.36	0.12
Nurses	0.05	3.77	0.04	3.14	0.05	2.51	0.12	2.40
Law Profession	0.13	0.02	0.30	0.01	0.30	0.02	0.25	0.06
Clerical Occupations	9.59	32.05	6.05	27.14	5.31	19.56	7.38	36.56
Sales Occupations	5.99	6.09	5.49	10.28	3.73	8.23	6.70	8.35
Service/Recreation	9.24	20.17	8.21	22.55	10.63	35.14	11.77	24.83
Transportation/Communications	6.22	2.22	8.00	2.10	4.84	1.89	9.50	2.83
Semi-Skilled	42.53	11.85	43.73	19.70	41.85	14.68	38.63	10.76
Laborers	9.85	1.08	5.09	1.31	5.42	0.92	5.48	0.94

Source: DBS Catalogues 94-509 and 94-512, 1961

TABLE 14 (continued)
OCCUPATION BY MARITAL STATUS AND SEX FOR CANADA AND ALBERTA, 1961
(in percentages)

Occupations	ALBERTA							
	Single		Married		Widowed		Divorced	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
All Occupations	91,000	40,254	264,108	76,792	4,687	8,139	2,166	2,365
Managerial	2.53%	1.27%	13.24%	3.53%	8.17%	5.88%	9.69%	4.22%
Professional/Technical	5.94	21.43	7.89	13.30	3.56	11.96	4.47	9.85
Teachers	1.13	7.72	1.50	7.64	1.02	6.8	0.96	4.60
Professional Principals	0.05	0.09	0.14	0.03	0.08	0.07	0.09	0.00
Classroom Teachers	1.01	7.39	1.24	7.42	0.85	6.48	0.83	4.35
Health Professions	0.42	10.16	1.02	3.91	0.53	2.97	0.46	3.42
Physicians	0.09	0.09	0.43	0.07	0.17	0.08	0.13	0.08
Nurses	0.02	4.73	0.14	3.21	0.12	2.42	0.09	2.41
Law Profession	0.11	0.01	0.33	0.00	0.53	0.03	0.13	0.00
Clerical Occupations	6.69	35.01	4.95	25.28	3.52	17.66	6.04	38.01
Sales Occupations	5.51	6.19	5.54	10.86	3.07	7.76	7.10	8.71
Service/Recreation	8.13	21.41	7.81	23.70	9.62	34.89	11.58	27.86
Transportation/Communications	5.70	3.38	7.39	2.06	3.13	1.92	10.11	3.04
Semi-Skilled	51.05	6.01	47.00	19.06	47.42	14.90	41.92	5.83
Laborers	8.91	0.71	3.82	0.90	4.28	0.81	6.14	0.88

Source: DBS Catalogues 94-509 and 94-512, 1961

FIGURE 3

PERCENT IN SINGLE DETACHED DWELLINGS
ALBERTA: 1966

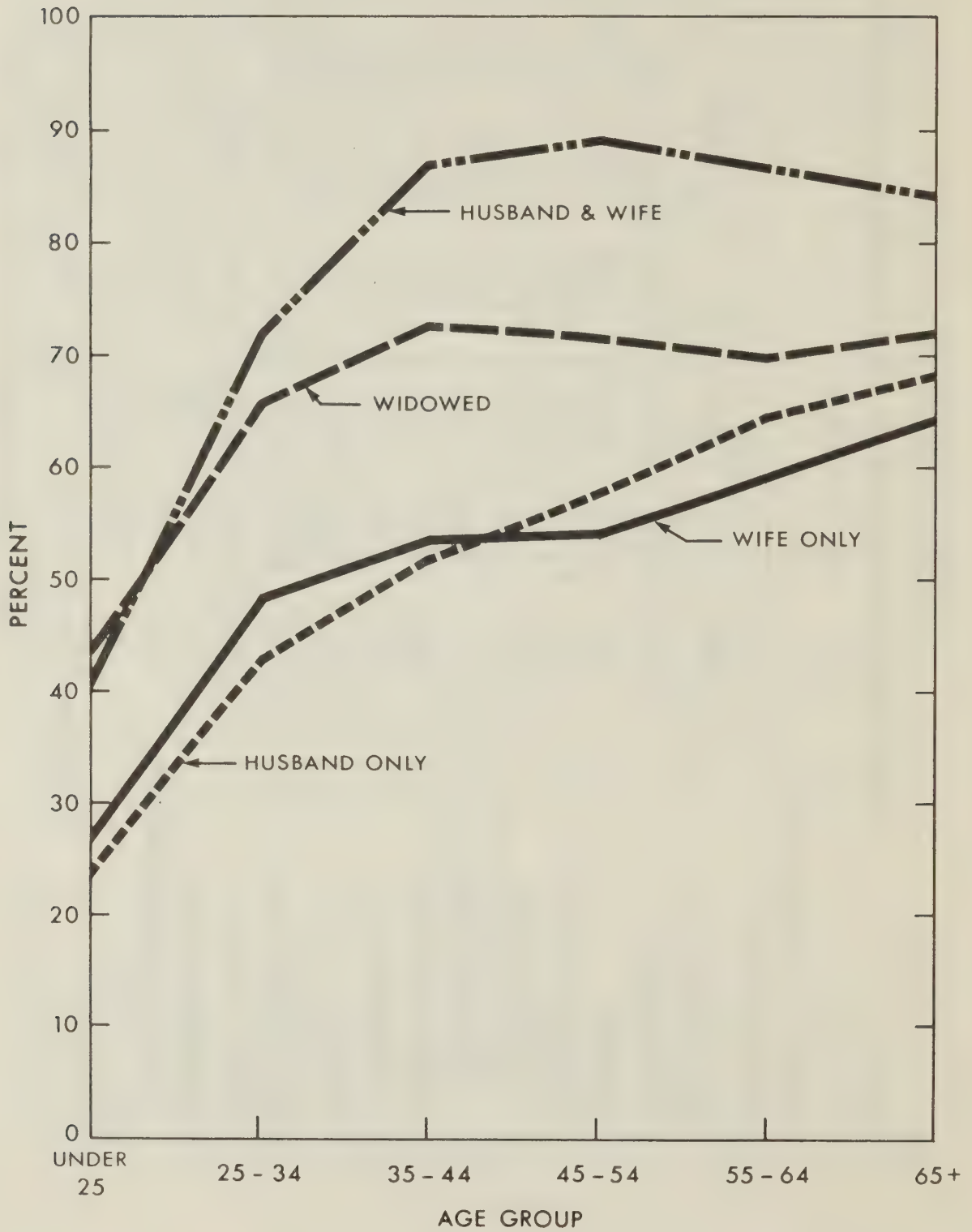


FIGURE 4

PERCENT OF SINGLE DETACHED DWELLINGS OWNED
ALBERTA: 1966

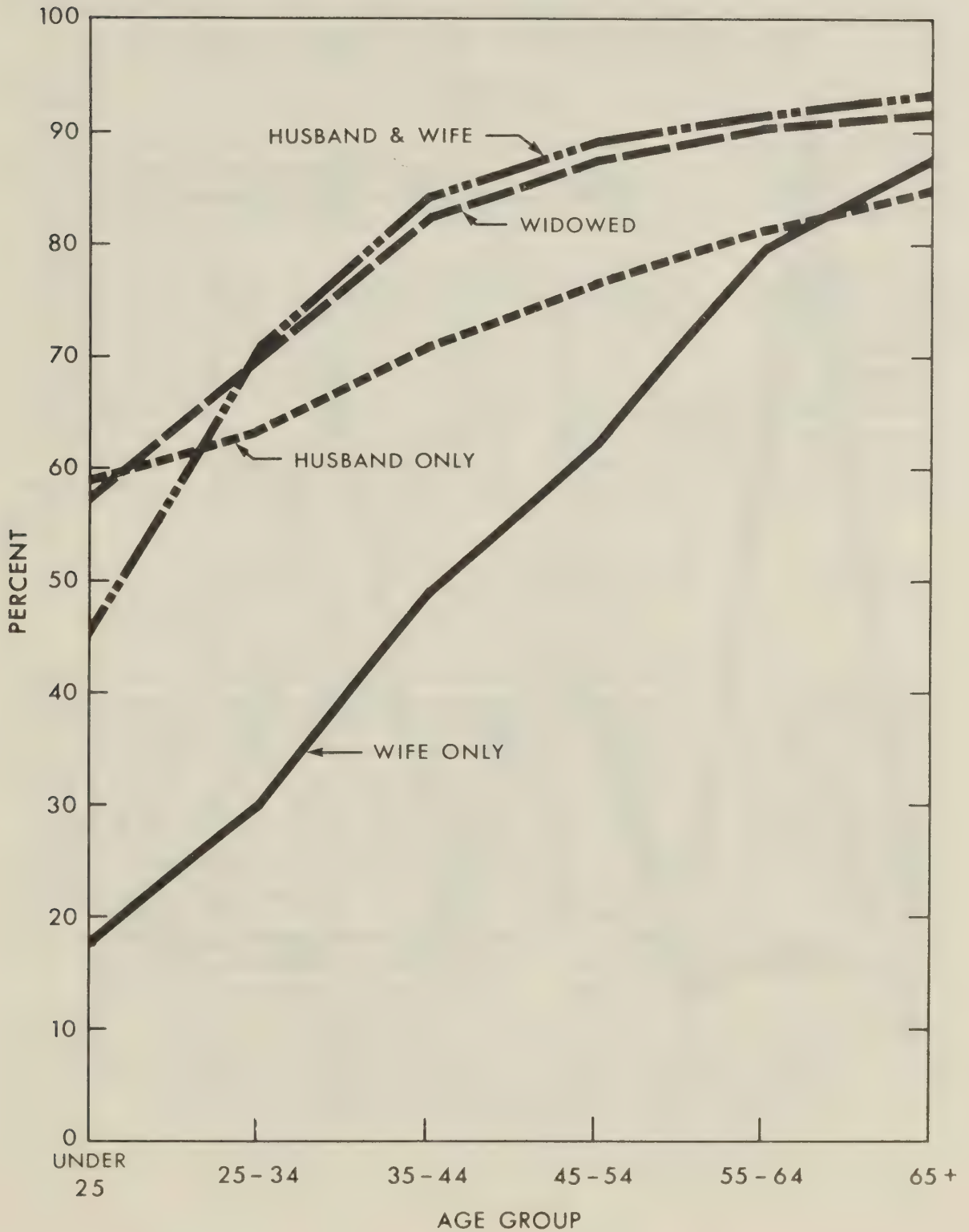


TABLE 15

SELECTED PROFESSIONAL OCCUPATIONS BY MARITAL STATUS AND SEX OF HEAD
FOR CANADA AND ALBERTA, 1961 (in percentages)

Section 1

Selected Professional Occupations	CANADA							
	Single		Married		Widowed		Divorced	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Principals	4.0	1.2	2.0	0.4	1.5	0.5	0.9	0.6
School Teachers	18.8	41.0	12.2	48.3	9.8	41.6	9.7	28.0
Physicians	2.2	0.4	6.6	0.8	8.2	0.3	5.5	1.4
Nurses	0.7	18.0	0.6	27.1	1.5	25.9	1.8	25.1
Lawyers	1.8	0.1	4.1	0.1	7.6	0.2	4.0	0.6
TOTAL PROFESSIONALS	M 86,146 F 156,872		M 266,523 F 101,873		M 2,773 F 11,436		M 1,136 F 2,142	

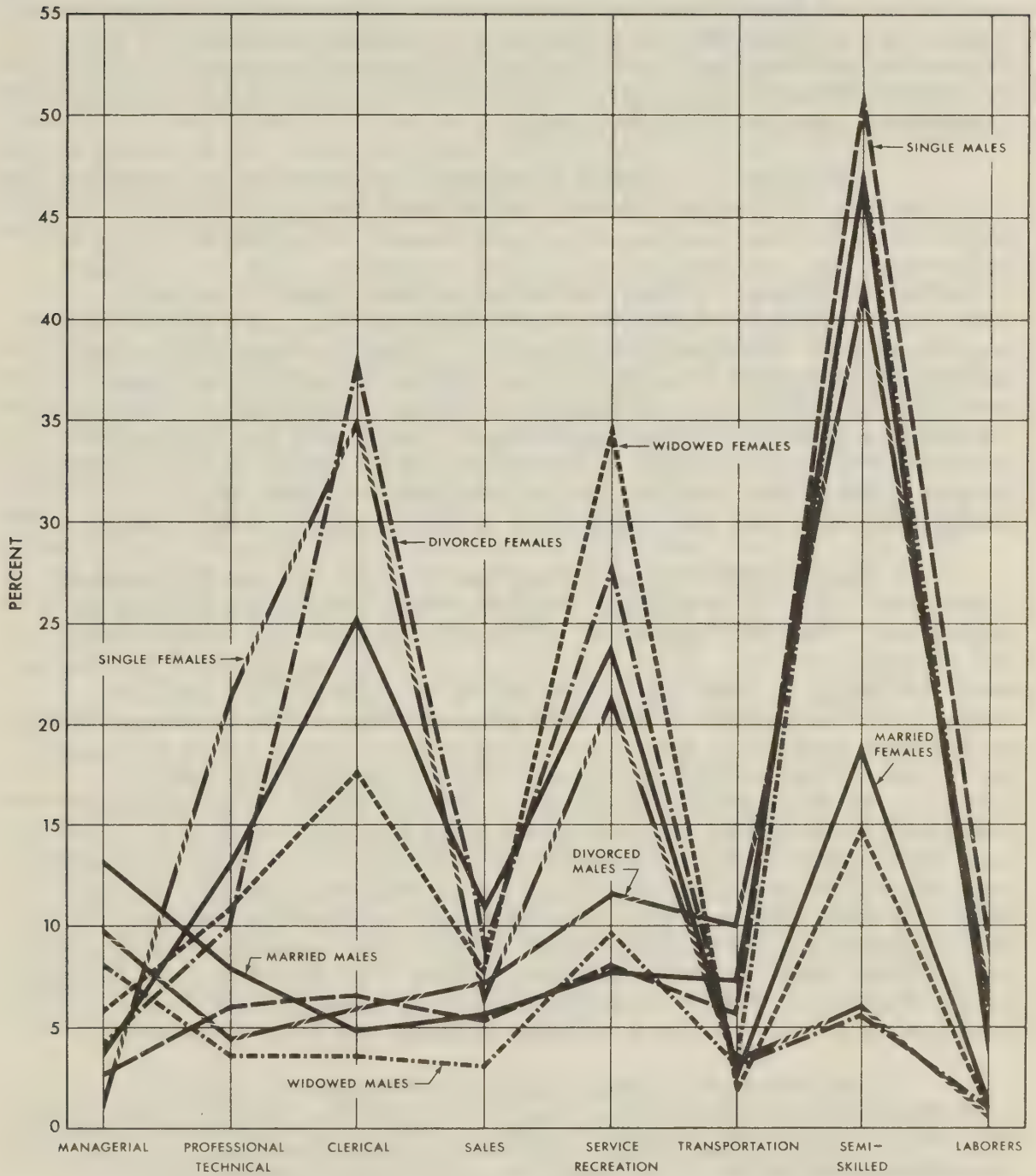
Section 2

Selected Professional Occupations	ALBERTA							
	Single		Married		Widowed		Divorced	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Principals	0.9	0.4	1.9	0.2	2.4	0.6	2.1	0.0
School Teachers	17.1	34.5	15.7	55.7	24.0	54.2	18.6	44.2
Physicians	1.5	0.4	5.6	0.6	4.8	0.7	3.1	0.8
Nurses	0.4	22.1	1.8	24.2	3.6	20.2	2.1	24.5
Lawyers	2.0	0.1	4.2	0.0	15.0	0.3	3.1	0.0
TOTAL PROFESSIONALS	M 5,407 F 8,630		M 20,850 F 10,221		M 167 F 974		M 97 F 233	

Source: DBS Catalogues 94-509 and 94-512, 1961

FIGURE 5:

PERCENT IN OCCUPATIONS BY
MARITAL STATUS AND SEX OF HEAD
ALBERTA: 1961



professional, clerical, service, and semi-skilled occupations reveal substantive differences. Single females are more involved in professional and less involved in semi-skilled occupations than their married or previously married counterparts. Divorced and single females are considerably more involved in clerical occupations than widowed or married females. As might be expected, widowed females are far more involved in service professions. Married females are more involved in semi-skilled professions.

The reasons for these differing patterns can be inferred with some ease. Divorced females often find themselves in an unanticipated situation requiring them to work. In general, they are not trained for any particular type of occupation, and clerical work is easier to obtain. Widows, in contrast, are generally quite a bit older than divorcees, are not as well-educated, and more often turned away because of their age. Consequently, they are forced to choose service occupations. The higher involvement of the single female in professional and clerical occupations reflects her greater interest in a career, a generally higher educational level, and the attendant marketable skills that this training provides. It may be emphasized, however, that these interpretations need clarification that demographic data and the limitations of this report cannot provide.

Comparisons between Canada and Alberta can now be observed (see Table 14). It is apparent that the lack of difference must be emphasized. The only important differences occur among single males and divorced females. Participation in clerical occupations by single males in Canada is half again what it is in Alberta (9.6 per cent compared to 6.7 per cent). Participation in semi-skilled occupations by divorced females is nearly twice as high in Canada (10.8 per cent) as it is in Alberta (5.8 per cent). The patterns within the professional occupational category are of particular interest (see Table 15). Due to the average age of male widowers, they are over-represented in the category of principals. For undoubtedly the same reason, in this case youth and perhaps marital status, single males are under-represented. The apparent contrast between males and females, however, must be explained on differing grounds. First, it may be noted that, relative to males, there are less than half as many single female principals, about one-tenth as many married female principals, about one-fourth as many widowed female principals.

The difference between males and females is not age or experience; perhaps educational level is lower for females, perhaps there is discrimination against females in these positions. Considerable evidence is provided for the latter explanation in Sylvia Ostry's book on *The Female Worker in Canada*. In this census monograph, even after male-female differences were adjusted for occupational distribution, age, and education, evidence of

"discrimination" remained compelling. Similar differences are observed for physicians and lawyers. The pronounced differences between male and female school teachers and nurses reflects the numerous professional alternatives available to males and the limited professional opportunities available to females. As suggested relative to the occupation of principal, the differences between single, married, and widowed *males* for physicians and lawyers can also be explained in terms of age and lack of training. Comparing Canada and Alberta, there are fewer single female school principals and teachers and somewhat more nurses in Alberta. In contrast, Alberta proportionally has more married female teachers and fewer married female nurses than in Canada.

Male and female widows in Alberta differ in several respects from Canadian widows. There are twice as many widowed male principals, nearly two and one-half as many widowed male school teachers, half as many male widowed physicians, and more than twice as many male widowed nurses and lawyers in Alberta. Apparently, Alberta widowed males more often return to school and become teachers, nurses, or lawyers than do Canadians at large. Or alternatively, Alberta widowed males represent a higher level of education proportionately than the Canadian average. In this case, the under-representation of widowed physicians may reflect their mobility away from the province. It may be suggested, in addition, that the over-representation in the other professional categories may reflect migration into the province of widowed males. These questions need further exploration.

Divorce among school teachers and principals in Alberta, whether male or female, appears to be more common than in Canada.

Before considering income and marital status, Table 16 presents the proportion of married women in the labor force by province. As can be seen, 25.9 per cent of Alberta married women were in the labor force in 1961. The proportion of employed married women is highest in Ontario, followed by Alberta and British Columbia. Newfoundland and Quebec have the lowest percentage of employed married women. The *Canada Year Book* (1968) reports that in 1968 married women comprised 54.7 per cent of the female labor force. Relative to the number of married women, the proportion of married women in the work force had risen to 29.6 per cent as of 1968.

Figures 6 to 8, taken from *The Female Worker in Canada* (Census monograph by S. Ostry, pp. 16-18), illustrate the female work participation profile by marital status, number of children at home, and age of children. Unfortunately, the published data of this type are only available for Canada, not for Alberta. Nonetheless, the Canadian trends are probably indicative of the Alberta pattern. In addition, the level of female participation in the labor force will be

TABLE 16

PROPORTION OF MARRIED WOMEN IN LABOUR FORCE,
BY PROVINCE, AS AT JUNE 1, 1961

PROVINCE	PER CENT
Newfoundland	9.4
Prince Edward Island	18.4
Nova Scotia	17.2
New Brunswick	17.4
Quebec	14.4
Ontario	27.4
Manitoba	25.5
Saskatchewan	21.7
Alberta	25.9
British Columbia	23.3
CANADA	22.0

Source: Calculated from DBS, 1961 Census of Canada, Marital Status (Cat. No. 92-544) Table 28, and Occupations by Sex Showing Age, Marital Status and Schooling, Canada and Provinces (Cat. Nos. 94-509 to 94-512), Table 17.

slightly higher in each category in Alberta. The diagrams graphically reveal that widowed and divorced females are considerably more involved in the labor force than married females. It is also clear that the relative level of work involvement is stable between the ages of 20 and 50. Figure 7 documents the significance of children in the home. The participation rates of married women with no children under age 15 are considerably higher than married women with children under age 15. Figure 8 further reinforces the importance of children in assessing female labor force participation rates. Only a minority of mothers with children under the age of six are involved in the labor force.

Marital Status, Income, and Education

Table 17 presents the average earnings and the distribution of earnings for single and married males and females by age. The average married male in Alberta, in 1961, earned nearly twice as much on the average as single males, and about \$100 more than married males in Canada. In contrast, the average employed married female in Alberta earned an average of \$140 less than the average single female. The difference between married female earnings in Alberta and Canada is minimal. Fifteen- to nineteen-year-old single males in Alberta earned less than their average Canadian counterpart. Married males in this age cohort earned slightly more in Alberta than in Canada. In contrast, again, both single and married females below the age of 19 earned considerably less in Alberta than in Canada. The average earnings for single Alberta males peaks in the 25-43 age cohort (\$3,106), while for married Alberta males the earnings peak in the 35-44 age cohort (\$4,751). The average earnings for single females, in contrast, peaks in the 55-64 age cohort (\$3,440), while for married females average earnings hardly pass the \$2,000 mark. The distribution of earnings in Alberta consistently illustrates similar patterns. In summary, the age of married females makes little difference in their earning power. This finding appears to reflect the irregular employment status of married women, i.e., the relative absence of a career pattern. The earning power of single males and females is quite similar if not advantageous to females (their income continues to climb until retirement, whereas the income of the single male recedes after age 35). It might be suggested in this regard that single middle-aged males have a considerably larger proportion with income under \$2,500 than do single middle-age females, reflecting the contaminating impact of unemployment, hobo status, and other possibilities. Married males unquestionably command the greatest earning power in Alberta society.

Family income for the managerial professions were higher in both Quebec and Ontario than in Alberta in 1961 (see Table 18). As

FIGURE 6

FEMALE PARTICIPATION PROFILE BY MARITAL STATUS
CANADA, 1961 CENSUS

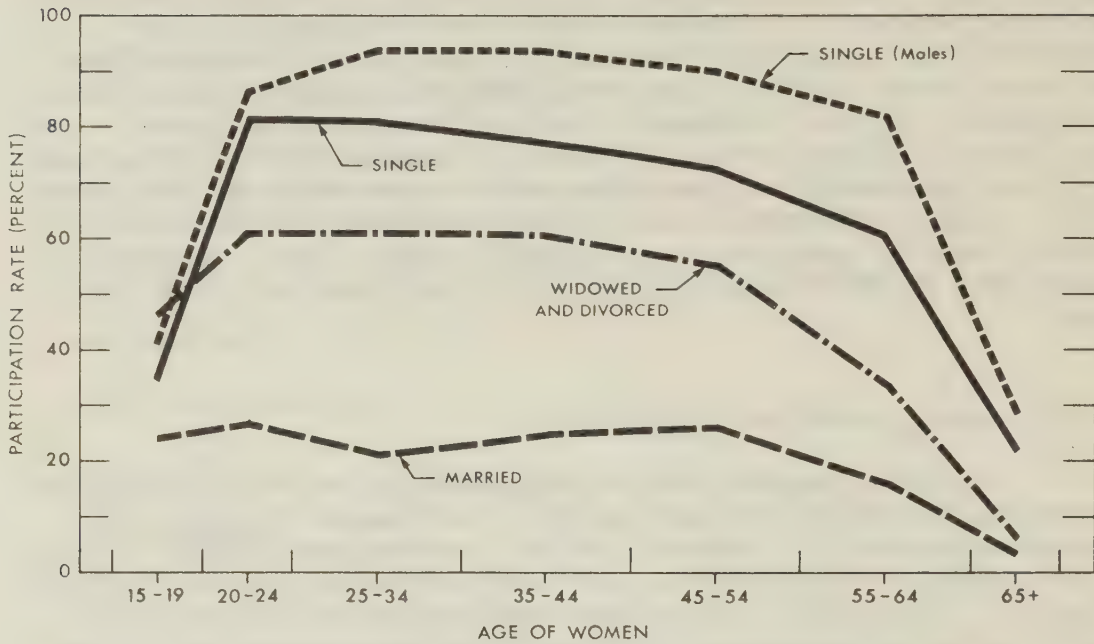
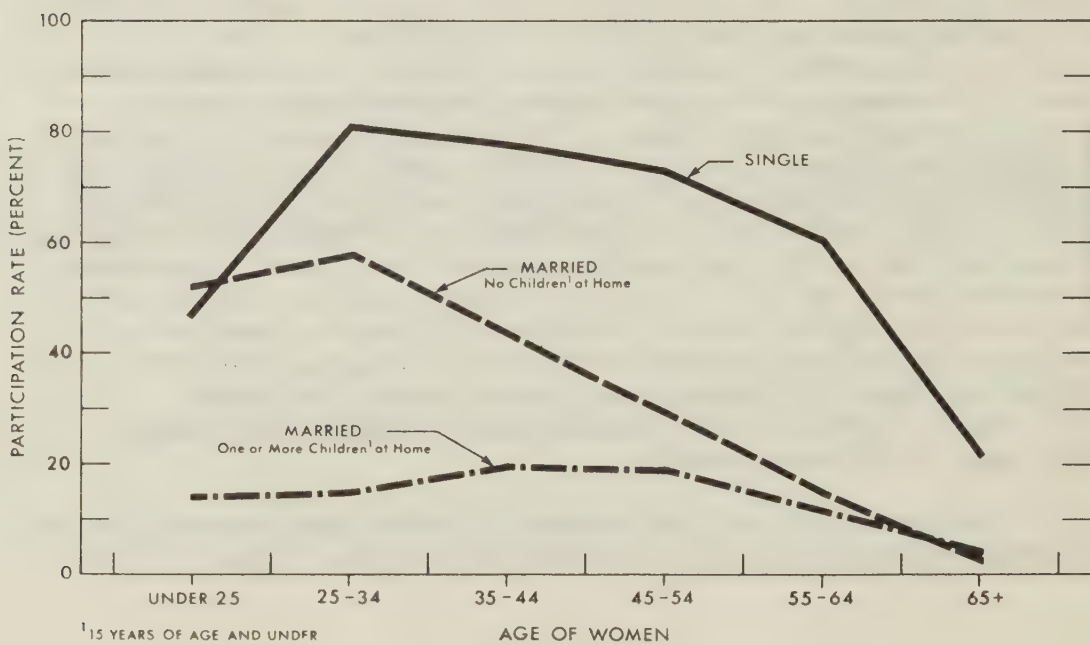


FIGURE 7

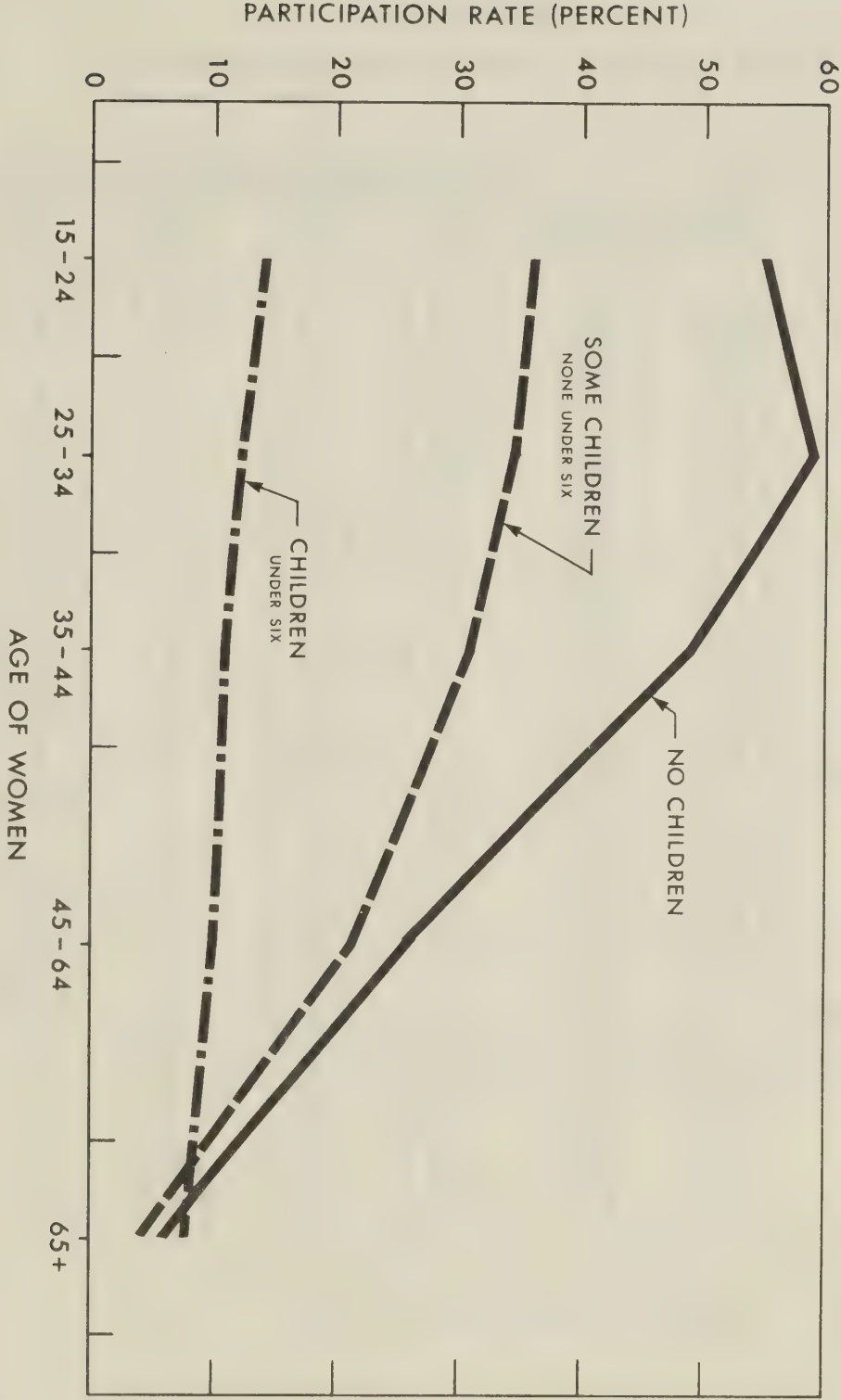
FEMALE PARTICIPATION PROFILE BY MARITAL AND FAMILY STATUS
CANADA, 1961 CENSUS



SOURCE: SYLVIA OSTRY, THE FEMALE WORKER IN CANADA,
OTTAWA: D.B.S., 1968, CHARTS 4A, 5.

FIGURE 8

MARRIED FEMALE PARTICIPATION PROFILE BY MARITAL STATUS
CANADA, 1961 CENSUS



SOURCE: SYLVIA OSTRY, THE FEMALE WORKER IN CANADA, OTTAWA: D.B.S., 1968
CHART 6.

TABLE 17
INCOME BY SEX AND MARITAL STATUS, CANADA AND ALBERTA, 1961

Marital Status and Age	Average Earnings		Percentage Distribution of Earnings			
	Canada	Alberta	\$0 - 2499	\$2500- 3999	\$4000- 5999	\$6000 plus
Single Males	\$2234	\$2203	59.6	26.2	11.4	2.8
15-19	1115	998	91.6	7.6	0.7	0.1
20-24	2226	2260	56.1	33.8	9.0	1.1
25-34	3015	3100	36.9	32.9	23.5	6.6
35-44	3088	3050	40.3	32.2	19.8	7.7
45-54	2878	2642	49.2	30.0	16.6	4.1
55-64	2685	2285	56.9	30.1	10.2	2.8
65+	2074	1696	76.1	18.8	3.7	1.4
Married Males	4165	4282	16.7	30.4	35.5	17.4
15-19	2068	2170	61.2	31.7	6.5	0.5
20-24	3143	3226	26.1	45.9	25.1	3.0
25-34	4051	4293	13.3	29.0	41.9	15.8
35-44	4502	4751	11.8	26.0	39.0	23.3
45-54	4410	4463	16.3	30.4	32.6	20.7
55-64	4045	3864	24.5	36.1	24.9	14.4
65+	3013	2688	53.1	28.1	12.7	6.1
Single Females	2050	2076	62.3	28.5	7.4	1.8
15-19	1129	982	94.4	5.5	0.1	0.0
20-24	2015	2145	59.7	37.5	2.3	.1
25-34	2599	2843	35.3	48.8	14.4	1.6
35-44	2091	3203	30.4	42.7	20.8	6.0
45-54	3030	3313	34.0	33.9	22.5	9.5
55-65	2939	3440	34.8	26.9	27.1	11.2
65+	1958	2355	62.7	17.4	12.8	7.0
Married Females	1933	1936	67.6	24.0	7.4	0.9
15-19	1446	1374	89.7	10.0	0.2	0.1
20-24	1993	1953	63.1	34.7	2.1	0.0
25-34	1982	1920	64.8	28.3	6.2	0.6
35-44	1891	1884	70.3	21.4	7.4	0.9
45-54	1977	2081	66.8	19.4	12.1	1.7
55-64	1877	1970	63.3	20.1	14.4	2.1
65+	1482	1558	79.0	12.0	7.9	0.8

Source: DBS Catalogue No. 94-536

TABLE 18

AVERAGE FAMILY INCOMES, BY SELECTED OCCUPATIONS OF FAMILY HEAD
AND BY PROVINCE, YEAR ENDED MAY 31, 1961

Province	Managerial	Professional	Craftsmen and Production Workers	Labourers
	\$	\$	\$	\$
Newfoundland	7,202	7 300	4,635	3,217
Prince Edward Island	6,671	7,174	3,903	2,995
Nova Scotia	7,302	7,693	4,443	3,309
New Brunswick	6,900	7,579	4,341	3,235
Quebec	9,261	8,732	5,211	4,126
Ontario	9,293	9,212	5,781	4,536
Manitoba	8,383	8,772	5,259	4,135
Saskatchewan	7,392	8,240	4,946	4,036
Alberta	8,519	8,911	5,392	4,241
British Columbia	8,443	8,952	5,797	4,607
CANADA	8,848	8,887	5,443	4,224

Source: DBS, 1961 Census of Canada Economic Families
(Cat. No. 98-524, Bull. SX-10), Table B11

can be seen, the average family income in Alberta for managers is \$8,519. Alberta also ranks third in average family income in professional, semi-skilled, and laboring occupations. Indeed, Alberta is lower than the Canadian average in the managerial and semi-skilled occupational areas. Average family income by educational level (see Table 19) reveals that Alberta falls short of the Canadian average in all three educational categories (6 years or less, high school diploma, and university degree). Alberta ranks fourth (below Ontario, British Columbia, and Quebec) in average family income where education is grade school or less, third for high school graduates and university graduates. Income has increased more than 20 per cent since 1961; however, it is not known whether the basic distribution of income has changed.

Social Characteristics of Marriage in Alberta

This section of the chapter deals with certain of the characteristics of married people in Alberta, including data on who marries whom, the age of husbands and wives, marital status by age of bride and groom, the religious denomination of the bride and groom, and month of marriage. Table 20 reveals that the majority of bachelors marry spinsters in both Alberta and Canada. Only 1.8 per cent of the Alberta bachelors marry widows, 93 per cent marry spinsters, and 5.2 per cent marry divorced women. Nearly twice as many Alberta bachelors as Canadian bachelors marry divorced women. Widowers, as might be expected, tend to marry widows (60.8 per cent in Canada compared to 60 per cent in Alberta). Considering the limited access of widowers to widows, the field of eligibles must be expanded. Consequently, the widower turns to the spinster market, choosing an unmarried spouse almost three times as often as a divorced spouse (27.9 per cent compared to 11.5 per cent in Canada). In Alberta, in contrast, widowers choose spinsters and divorced women with about the same frequency. Alberta divorced men marry divorced women considerably less often than they do spinsters (about 34 per cent compared to 54 per cent). They least often marry widows.

Table 21 reveals that 80 per cent of the men under age 20 marry women also under the age of 20. Looking at each of the age cohorts for husbands, two things are apparent. First, the higher the age cohort of the husband, the more frequently the wife will come from age cohorts *below* rather than above that of the husband. In the 35-39 age cohort for husbands, for example, 39 per cent of their wives come from the same age cohort, another 39 per cent from the 30-34 age cohort, and another 12 per cent from the 20-29 age cohort. By the time husbands reach the ages 60-64, 22 per cent of their wives come from the 50-54 age cohort, two age cohorts removed. Indeed, by the age of 65 more than 57 per cent of wives are 60 years of age and younger.

TABLE 19

AVERAGE FAMILY INCOMES, BY SELECTED LEVELS OF SCHOOLING
OF FAMILY HEAD, BY PROVINCE, YEAR ENDED MAY 31, 1961

PROVINCE	NO SCHOOLING OR ELEMENTARY	SECONDARY 4-5 YEARS	UNIVERSITY DEGREE
Newfoundland	\$ 3,356	\$ 5,781	\$ 10,658
Prince Edward Island	3,277	5,517	9,025
Nova Scotia	3,624	5,887	9,442
New Brunswick	3,645	5,481	9,574
Quebec	4,679	7,005	11,207
Ontario	5,043	7,141	11,474
Manitoba	4,227	6,243	10,300
Saskatchewan	3,858	5,871	10,134
Alberta	4,574	6,387	10,976
British Columbia	4,751	6,202	10,589
CANADA	4,626	6,784	11,073

Source: DBS, 1961 Census of Canada Economic Families
(Cat. No. 98-524, Bull. SX-10), Table B10

TABLE 20

MARRIAGES, MARITAL STATUS OF BRIDEGROOM BY
STATUS OF BRIDE, ALBERTA, 1968

Total Marriages	MARRIAGES BETWEEN									
	Bachelors and			Widowers and			Divorced Men and			Divorced
	Spinsters	Widows	Divorced	Spinsters	Widows	Divorced	Spinsters	Widows	Divorced	
CANADA 171,766	150,633 95.8 %	2,586 1.6 %	4,090 2.6 %	1,758 27.9 %	3,865 60.8 %	729 11.5 %	4,392 54.2 %	1,021 12.6 %	2,692 33.2 %	
ALBERTA 13,640	11,179 93.0 %	214 1.8 %	624 5.2 %	90 20.4 %	264 60.0 %	86 19.5 %	632 53.4 %	138 11.7 %	413 34.9 %	

Source: Annual Report of the Department of Health, Alberta, 1968

TABLE 21
AGE OF HUSBAND BY AGE OF WIFE, ALBERTA, 1961

		Age of Wife (Percentages)											
Age of Husband	Total Families	Under 20	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59	60-64	65-69	70+
All Ages	304,619	1.9	10.3	12.8	13.2	13.2	12.6	10.5	8.5	6.3	4.4	2.9	3.3
Under 20	709	80.0	18.0	1.4	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
20-24	16,176	23.6	69.9	6.0	0.4	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
25-29	32,966	3.1	45.7	45.6	4.8	0.6	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
30-34	40,163	0.5	9.7	41.7	40.8	6.3	0.9	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
35-39	41,336	0.1	2.0	12.0	39.1	39.0	6.7	0.9	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
40-44	37,342	0.1	0.5	2.5	12.6	38.6	38.0	6.5	1.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
45-49	33,091	0.1	0.2	0.6	3.0	15.6	39.8	33.8	6.1	0.8	0.1	0.0	0.0
50-54	28,400	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.9	4.9	19.0	38.7	30.7	4.7	0.7	0.1	0.1
55-59	22,988	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.4	1.7	7.2	20.6	37.7	27.3	4.1	0.7	0.2
60-64	18,631	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.6	2.7	8.9	22.0	37.0	23.9	3.8	0.9
65-69	12,803	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.8	2.5	6.8	15.7	24.4	14.9	3.4
70+	20,014	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.4	1.0	3.0	7.5	16.3	25.5	46.1

Source: DBS Catalogue No. 93-612

In comparison, about 10 per cent of the husbands in the 30-34 age cohort have wives five years or more their junior in age. This table provides clear evidence that husbands are older than their wives and this age difference, on the average, is larger the older the husband.

Further evidence of these relationships are presented in Table 22. The left side of the table represents the age of the bride and groom at the time of marriage. The top of the table refers to the marital status of the spouse (unmarried previously, widowed, or divorced) at the time of marriage. Consequently, this table permits us to establish the percentage of divorced people, for example, marrying at a given age.

In 1968, 37 per cent of those spinsters marrying were under 20 years of age compared to 8.5 per cent for bachelors. In both cases, however, the majority of bachelors and spinsters at marriage were between the ages of 20 and 24. The probability of marriage after age 30 appears to decrease radically for bachelors and even more radically for spinsters. Indeed, there is one chance in a hundred that a spinster will marry beyond the age of 40, while the chances for bachelors are 3 out of 100. As would be expected, the majority of widowers who marry are beyond the age of 50. Nearly 31 per cent marry after the age of 65. Widows appear to enter the remarriage circuit somewhat earlier because they were younger than men at the time of their first marriage. Further, their marriage chances decrease with age while the remarriage chances of the widower are not affected as much. The divorced who marry represent a somewhat different marriage pattern. Divorced brides are typically beyond the age of 25. The probability of marriage for the divorced bride is still about 1 in 10 at the age of 50. There is no evidence of a sharp increase in remarriage during the 40-50 year age period as suggested by U.S. divorce and remarriage statistics.

In addition to the limiting effect of age and marital status in choosing a marriage mate, religion has been frequently shown to be a variously significant factor. Among very fundamentalist religious groups, for example, the proportion marrying outside the "faith" is generally very small. However, religious commitment need not be the only or most important limiting factor. The pattern of religious affiliation, in itself, limits contacts with persons in other socio-cultural settings. Certain of these relationships are apparent in Table 23. The strength of the religious isolation variable is most apparent among International Bible Students (80.6 per cent marry within their own group). The commitment to religious and/or ethnic values is also apparent among Jews (76.6 per cent), Mormons (65.5 per cent), Mennonites (62.8 per cent), and Oriental religions (62.9 per cent). The salience of associational patterns, where religious dogma may not be so impelling, can be seen in the United Church (56.5 per

TABLE 22
MARRIAGES, MARITAL STATUS, BY AGE OF BRIDE AND GROOM, ALBERTA, 1968

Age of Bride and Groom	Marital Status of Groom				Marital Status of Bride			
	Total	Bachelors at Marriage	Widowers at Marriage	Divorced at Marriage	Total	Spinsters at Marriage	Widows at Marriage	Divorced at Marriage
Under 20	7.5%	8.5%	0.0%	0.0%	32.4%	37.0%	0.5%	0.4%
20-24	53.5	59.9	0.7	7.0	45.5	50.4	3.2	17.6
25-29	19.9	20.3	2.5	21.9	9.8	8.6	6.0	25.1
30-34	6.9	5.7	3.4	21.3	3.7	2.0	5.5	20.5
35-39	4.0	2.6	7.3	17.2	2.2	0.9	7.5	12.8
40-44	2.6	1.4	8.9	12.7	2.1	0.5	12.7	12.4
45-49	1.7	0.7	9.5	9.8	1.4	0.3	14.3	6.0
50-54	1.2	0.4	12.0	5.3	1.0	0.2	13.6	3.1
55-59	0.9	0.3	13.4	2.5	0.8	0.1	11.7	1.5
60-64	0.6	0.1	11.4	1.4	0.5	0.0	11.0	0.4
65+	1.2	0.1	30.9	0.9	0.6	0.0	14.0	0.2
TOTAL MARRIAGES	13,640	12,017	440	1,183	13,640	11,901	616	1,123

Source: Annual Report of the Department of Health, Alberta, 1968

TABLE 23
RELIGIOUS DENOMINATION OF GROOM BY RELIGIOUS DENOMINATION OF BRIDE, ALBERTA, 1968
(in percentages)

RELIGIOUS DENOMINATION OF GROOM	SYMBOL	TOTAL GROOMS	RELIGIOUS DENOMINATION OF BRIDE																				
			X1	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6	X7	X8	X9	X10	X11	X12	X13	X14	X15	X16	X17	X18	X19	X20	X21
AUVENTIST	X1	41	56.1											5.9							7.3	14.6	
ANGELICAN	X2	1,530	0.5	29.2	2.0					0.8				6.0	0.7		1.1	4.2			16.7	31.8	1.0
BAPTIST	X3	390		9.0	29.7					1.5	1.3			4.9	1.3		1.8	3.1	4.4	10.5	25.9	1.3	
CHRISTIAN BRETHREN	X4	28		7.0		14.3								17.9	10.7			7.1			17.8		
CHRISTIAN MISS. ALL.	X5	51			9.8		45.1				3.9										9.8		
CHURCH OF CHRIST	X6	36					27.8							11.1				8.3			19.4	5.6	
CHURCH OF GOD	X7	21		14.3	9.5				23.8											14.3			
EASTERN ORTHODOX	X8	419		6.0	1.2					36.8		9.1		5.5			1.2	1.2	1.2	15.5	18.8		
EVANGELICAL	X9	68		5.9	5.9		2.9			1.5	41.2			5.9			5.9		10.3	11.8			
GREEK CATHOLIC	X10	315		4.4						7.3		36.2		3.2			1.0			32.1	11.4	1.0	
INTER. BIBLE STUDENTS	X11	67										80.6								3.0	4.5	3.0	
JEWISH	X12	47		6.4									76.6							10.6			
LUTHERAN	X13	1,028		10.7	2.2									33.8			1.6	1.1		15.1	25.0	1.6	
MENNONITE	X14	180		2.8	2.2		1.7							5.6	62.8					8.3	11.1		
METHODIST	X15	41		17.1	4.9											12.2	4.9	4.9		17.1	29.3		
MORMON	X16	322		3.1										1.9			65.5	2.0		7.5	15.8		
PENTECOSTAL	X17	208		5.3	2.4									4.3				49.0		9.1	17.3		
PRESBYTERIAN	X18	389		15.2	2.3					1.3				5.1				1.5	17.0	14.9	34.2	1.8	
ROMAN CATHOLIC	X19	3,046		7.5	1.5					1.5				4.1					2.1	56.7	18.1	1.7	
UNITED CHURCH	X20	4,098		10.7	1.6					1.5				6.4			1.4		2.3	14.0	56.5		
"NON DENOMINATIONAL"	X21	471		7.6	1.9					1.5				4.0			1.1	1.5	1.5	15.1	16.6	43.5	

Source: Annual Report of the Department of Health, Alberta, 1968

cent). Catholics and the United Church appear to be a central source of mate selection when one moves outside his own religious group. This pattern undoubtedly reflects availability and contact rather than the significance of religion. Anglicans and Baptists, for example, marry as often within the United Church as within their own denominations.

Summary

Vital statistics for Canada and Alberta reveal several trends. The rate of natural increase reached its highest point in the 1950's and has continued to decline to the present. The percentage of illegitimate births, and length of life for both males and females has increased. The age at marriage for both males and females has declined while marriage rates have remained fairly stable to the present. There is some evidence that marriage rates have been increasing since 1963. Divorce rates have been increasing rapidly since 1955.

Selected vital statistics and related family characteristics for the differing census divisions in Alberta are summarized below. The characteristics listed are those which were the most apparent (highest or lowest) for each of the census divisions.

C.D. 1	German, Russian, less than four persons in the household
C.D. 2	Netherlands
C.D. 3	Indian, illegitimacy, marriage rate, not maintaining own household, two-three families in each household
C.D. 4	Russian, low divorce rate, non-kin households, unmarried households, husband-only families, male widowers
C.D. 5	Low divorce rate
C.D. 6	English, high divorce rate, less than four persons in household, one to two children, wife-only families, female divorced family heads
C.D. 7	Scandinavian
C.D. 8	High divorce rate, single family household

- C.D. 9 Italian, Indian, low birth rate, illegitimacy,
unmarried households, less than four persons in
household, no children
- C.D. 10 Scandinavian, Ukrainian, one to two children, widows
- F.D. 11 Wife-only families
- C.D. 12 French, Ukrainian, Indian, high birth rate,
illegitimacy, kin-related households, five or more
persons in household
- C.D. 13 French, Ukrainian, Indian, high birth rate,
illegitimacy, kin-related households, five or more
persons in household
- C.D. 14 Low marriage rate
- C.D. 15 French, Indian, high birth rate, illegitimacy

Urban Alberta had proportionately more unmarried persons than rural areas. Rural Alberta has several more visible characteristics including single family occupants, two or three family households, non-kin related persons in the households with five or more persons, and three or more children.

Relative to childbirth, the majority of women are through bearing children before they reach the age of 30. Divorces in Alberta, though early granted only to husbands, have since 1952 been granted to wives as well. The trend toward the majority of divorces granted to wives increased more rapidly since 1963.

The majority of urban families in Alberta are headed by males (93 per cent), the remainder by females. Similarly, the majority of families contain both the husband and wife (92 per cent). Of the remainder, the majority are divorced families headed by females. There are twice as many divorced family heads in urban Alberta as in urban Canada, and four times as many as in rural Alberta. The proportion of the Alberta population that are married reaches its highest point in the 35-44 age cohort, while the proportion divorced is highest in the 45-54 year age period.

Nearly all married couples maintain their own household, whereas female single parents and those never married least often maintain a separate residence. Divorced families have fewer children than husband-wife families and female divorced heads have twice as many children as male divorced heads. The majority of married

couples and widowed family heads live in single detached dwellings. Divorced family heads are fairly evenly divided into single detached dwellings and apartments. Never married females live primarily in apartments. Married couples more often own their own dwellings, while wife-only family heads seldom do until their forties. The differences in single family dwelling ownership are considerably reduced over the life span.

Minimal occupational differences were found among males of differing marital statuses. Females, however, present a more varied portrait. Divorced and single females are considerably more involved in clerical occupations than widowed or married females. Widowed females are more involved in the service occupations. Married females, relative to other marital statuses, were more involved in semi-skilled occupations. The distributions of males and females within the professional occupational category differ significantly in that males consistently hold the higher status positions. Earnings are considerably higher among single females than among married females.

Although married women comprise a larger share of the labor force than single women, the proportion of married women working remains below 30 per cent. Those with children are considerably less involved in the work force.

The final section of the chapter illustrated the characteristics of marriage in Alberta. Bachelors and divorced men typically marry spinsters. Widowers tend to marry widows. Men were found to marry women at the same age or younger than themselves. The disparity in age increased with the age of husbands. Bachelors and spinsters marry between the ages of 20 and 24. Those who wait beyond the age of 30 decrease their chances considerably. Marriage chances for widows decrease with age, but age is not as significant for widowers. The probability of marriage for a divorced bride is about 1 in #10 at the age of 40, whereas a divorced groom can depend on similar probabilities at the age of 50. Divorce was not found to increase with age. Religion was found to be a limited factor for certain groups like Jews and Mormons, and insignificant for other groups such as Baptists.

The preceding analysis of census materials has provided a considerable amount of information on the structure and distribution of marriage and family characteristics in Alberta. In many respects, we have found it necessary to ignore possible explanations for the findings due to the limitations imposed by the data itself as well as the limitations of this report. We have further ignored the numerous questions that need asking nearly every time a new factor is introduced. For example, why in fact does Census Division 9 have the highest illegitimacy rate in Alberta? What is the relationship

between two or three family households and household size? Why does Census Division 4 have the highest rate of non-kin households? Why does Census Division 13 contain the highest proportion of kin-related households? Why does Edmonton have a lower marriage rate than Calgary? Speculative answers may be given to these questions but a demographic study utilizing individual data is the only dependable way to obtain adequate answers. Further, the demographic materials presented also lend considerable credence to the need for interview and survey research in all areas of the province. Chapter Three reviews the available research on the family relative to the scope of research necessary.

CHAPTER III

FAMILY RESEARCH IN ALBERTA

A variety of networks of human relationships in society are structured to meet human needs; the family is one of these networks. Accordingly, the relationships between the family and other aspects of society are studied to understand better several compelling questions: Why do families exist? What purpose(s) do they serve in society? Why do families persist? Why do family and kinship forms and practices vary among and within societies? What is the relationship between the family and other institutions such as politics or, more recently, leisure? What is the societal significance of family change, the emergence of alternative family forms, the persistence of the nuclear family? What are the characteristics of marriage and family relationships in lower class neighborhoods? These questions and others illustrate the importance of research on the interconnection of the family and society.

A second group of questions concerns the impact of the family on its members, its young in particular. In what ways does the family influence the development of the child? What is the impact of working motherhood on children, on the self-esteem of the mother herself, and on the husband-wife relationship? The possible connection between the attitudes and behaviors of people and their current or preceding marriage and family relationships document the importance of social psychological family research.

Social Organization and the Family

It will be helpful in describing the research on the family in Alberta to organize first the data into categories. This technique will illustrate the apparent gap and inform the reader of certain of the research issues that might be explored. The studies to be reported are numbered. Accordingly, the numbers appearing in the categories on the charts in this chapter are the numbers of the studies.

Chart I presents one way of organizing research possibilities related to the interconnection between the family and society. Each of these categories is further clarified below:

Kinship structure and forms - nuclear, extended, monogamy, polygamy, polandry, group marriage, communal family, size, age and sex composition

CHART I

A TYPOLOGY OF SOCIAL ORGANIZATION FACTORS IN FAMILY RESEARCH

SOCIAL ORGANIZATION AND THE FAMILY					
	Kinship structure and forms	Kinship regulations, status and deference patterns	Premarriage, marriage entry and marriage patterns	Procreation and Socialization	Family and Society
Family in time and space					
Family & Social change	18, 19	18, 19	18, 19, 36	18, 19	3, 14, 18, 19
Subcultural Families	16, 17, 18, 19	16, 17, 18, 4, 19	4, 18, 36	5, 6, 17, 16, 18, 36	5, 6, 16, 17, 18, 19
Family and Institutions					3
Family and History					
Family and Demography	8, 18, 19				
Residual Family Issues					39

Kinship regulations, status, and deference patterns -
lineage, residence, authority, status of family
members, deference and avoidance rules

Premarriage, marriage entry, and marriage patterns -
premarital preparation, mate selection patterns,
regulations relating to marriage including
entrance requirements and ceremonies,
characteristics of marriage and the regulations
administered by kinship groups or enforced by
society.

Procreation and socialization - regulations relating to
childbirth and childrearing, socialization
procedures, purposes, and the structure and
process of social influence

Family and society - the ways in which the kinship system
is related to the larger society; the nature of
contact and regulation between kinship groupings

Family and social change - the impact of cultural
complexity, technology, social mobility,
urbanization, and related societal factors on the
family system; the impact of differing family
forms on societal change; the family in the
future, e.g., emerging family forms, utopian
families

Subcultural families - the analysis of minority or unusual
family forms and relationships within a society
where there are differing majority patterns

Family and institutions - the relationship between the
family and other institutions such as politics,
economics, religion, education, and leisure

Family and history - the study of the trends and patterns
of the family from its inception to the present,
e.g., tracing the development of the family in
French Canada

Family and demography - the study of census materials and
other data concerning the distribution of marriage
and family characteristics

Residual family issues - studies of the family which focus
on general family characteristics such as

parenthood in Canadian society, without specifying the linkage to particular family types

The typology created by the cross-indexing of the features listed above provides an indication of the scope of the questions that could be asked concerning the relationship between the family and society. As can be seen from Chart I, there is little research in Alberta on the family and other institutions, the family in history, and the family and demography. The latter is modestly explored in the second chapter of this report. The research that has been done is primarily descriptive and only touches the surface of the numerous factors implicit in the chart itself. To the end of 1970, the published and unpublished references available on social organization and the family in Alberta are annotated below.

Atwell, Phyllis H. (3)

1969 *Kinship and Migration among Calgarian Residents of Indian Origin.* M.A. Thesis. The University of Calgary.

Contrary to expectation, family relations did not stimulate migration nor did the kinship group act as an agent of socialization for the new milieu. Adjustments to the off-reservation setting were effected by social agencies, not the family.

Barclay, Harold (4)

1971 "The Lebanese Muslim Family." Manuscript to be published in K. Ishwaran (editor), *The Canadian Family*. Toronto: Holt, Rinehart.

This manuscript explores the Muslim conception of family and marriage and then compares the traditional Arab Levantine family with the Lebanese Muslim family in Alberta. In particular, the adjustment problems in several areas are discussed, including divorce, the freedom and independence of women, dating, mate selection, modesty, religious tradition, and the structure of the house.

Boldt, Edward D. (5)

1966 *Conformity and Deviance: The Hutterites of Alberta.* M.A. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

Testing the assumption that children in communal communities will conform more to the decisions of their peers than children of like age and socio-economic status in non-communal communities, it was found that the Hutterite children were significantly less conformist than their non-Hutterite peers. In-depth interviews led to the

conclusion that defection is a function of perceived opportunity in the "world" rather than a commitment to Hutterite values.

Boldt, Edward D. (6)

1968 *Acquiescence and Conventionality in a Communal Society*
Ph.D. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

This study tested the assumption that acquiescence (yielding to group pressure) becomes a personality feature of individuals reared in *gemeinschaft* society and that this process accounts for the marked conventionality (behavior in accordance with group norms) of such societies. Utilizing a sample of Mennonites, Hutterites, and non-communal subjects, it was found that Mennonites are more acquiescent than either the Hutterites or "worldly" sample. The Hutterites and the non-communal sample did not differ. It was further found that conventionality is not necessarily produced in *gemeinschaft* societies.

Card, B.Y., et al (8)

1963 *The Metis in Alberta Society*. A Report prepared for the Alberta Tuberculosis Association.

Although data on the family in this study is limited, certain findings of interest may be briefly noted. First, the median number of persons per household for Metis Indians was found to be six as compared to four for Treaty Indians and three for white households. Second, based on a crowding index of one person per room, over 50 per cent of the Metis Indians were found to have more than two persons per room as compared to 3 per cent for white households.

Hatt, Fred K. (16)

1969 *The Response to Directed Social Change on an Alberta Metis Colony*. Ph.D. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

Relative to the family and kinship, this study provides particular insight into the characteristics of family life in a single Metis village. The technique used was participant observation.

Four different kinship groupings comprise nearly 80 per cent of the village population. The significance of kinship organization in this village is described relative to residence, work patterns, and child rearing processes. The social organization of the village is further explored relative to the nuclear family, the single parent family, and the aging family.

Hatt, Judith (17)

1969 *The Rights and Duties of the Metis Preschool Child.*
M.A. Thesis. The University of Alberta

Utilizing the participant observation technique, this study describes the rights and duties ascribed to the various positions a Metis child six years of age occupies. Emphasis is given to offspring and sibling positions within the kinship unit. The characteristics of the Metis kinship system are also identified. The findings reflect certain of the differences among the families studied, the differences between the sexes, and the noticeable effect of learned family rights and duties on other types of activity such as activity in the playschool.

Hobart, C.W., et al. (18)

1963 *Persistence and Change: A Study of Ukrainians in Alberta.*
A Report prepared for the Ukrainian Canadian Research Foundation.

This study is an extensive analysis of the characteristics of Ukrainians in Alberta and the processes of acculturation. Relative to the family, several demographic and sociological characteristics are identified. Considerable contrast is apparent between the first and third generation Ukrainian family. The latter tended to come from smaller families and specified fewer children as ideal. They had lower rates of home ownership. They were often intermarried and more often favored intermarriage. Wives more often worked. They advocated a more egalitarian marital relationship. They were less concerned about familism and maintaining close kinship ties. They consistently espoused less domineering attitudes in dealing with children. In other words, *third generation* Ukrainian families were, in most respects, little different from the rest of Alberta families.

Hobart, Charles W. (19)

1966 *Italian Immigrants in Edmonton: Adjustment and Integration.*
A research report prepared for the Royal Commission on Bilingualism and Biculturalism.

This study presents extensive data on the accommodation of Italians in Edmonton to Canadian society. Findings relevant to the family are profuse; consequently, only selected findings are briefly identified here.

Among subjects 15 years or older, 63 per cent are married and 1.6 per cent are widowed, divorced, or separated. The intermarriage rates among native born Italians were the highest

(92.4 per cent) relative to immigrants from the British Isles, or German and Ukrainian immigrants. Among post-war immigrants, however, the Italian intermarriage rates were the lowest (11.6 per cent). Similarly, there were more working wives among Italians (41.3 per cent) than in the other groups. Post-war Italian immigrants were also found to have a higher percentage of secondary family households (18 per cent) relative to an average of about 4 per cent in the other ethnic groups. Relative to the other ethnic groups, the Italians were over-represented in the service, craftsmen, and labor type professions.

The Italian families sampled were found to be large, though not as large as the family of orientation. Several values were apparent, including patriarchalism, familism (as evidenced by the frequent sharing of residences with relatives, the popularity of visiting as a leisure time activity, the extent of aid given in helping other families), the woman's responsibility to home and family, and saving of money. Child dominance scores were found to be high.

Italians who show the best accommodation to Canadian society are said to have the following characteristics: they tend to be well educated Italians from higher class backgrounds; they acquire non-Italian friends, attend both Italian and non-Italian social functions; they more frequently speak English in their families; they hope for smaller families, are more permissive in their attitudes toward child rearing, and have higher aspirations for their children; they more often favor intermarriage and are more often intermarried themselves.

Peter, Karl A. (36)

1967 *Factors of Social Change and Social Dynamics in the Communal Settlements of Hutterites 1527-1967.* Ph.D. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

Mate choice, the philosophy of marriage, and the structure and process of child development among Hutterites in Alberta are briefly described in this study. The emphasis, however, is upon social change.

Sartoris, Paul (39)

1962 *An Exploratory Study of Motivational Patterns in Women.* M.A. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

Six motivational categories were defined from the responses of 30 first-year university women, 40 single business girls, and 160 married women, ranging in age from 17-60 years. The motivational

categories included marriage and family, social acceptability, career, self-improvement, material goals, and competitive success. No significant differences were found between younger and older married women on any of the motivational categories. Significant differences were found between married women and university girls. Married women more often choose marriage and family and material goals while university girls choose social acceptability, career, and competitive success. Business women placed more emphasis on material goals. Within the married group, material goals were more strongly emphasized by married women lacking higher education than by those possessing it.

Research on social organization and the family in Alberta reflects a pronounced interest in selected ethnic groups (Italians, Ukrainians, Indians) to the neglect of the numerous other ethnic groups equally worthy of study (English, Russian, French, German, Oriental). Families of differing socio-economic levels (upper, middle, working, lower) have been largely ignored except in the context of the ethnic research, which precludes the upper and middle levels of Alberta society. Further, none of the research identified deals extensively with the family. The family, for the most part, is a minor variable. Although the Hutterites have been studied extensively, none of the research has yet attempted to explore further the dimensions of family life and socialization in Hutterites colonies outlined in *The Hutterites in North America* (Hostetler and Huntington, 1967). Relative to social organization theory, the essence of kinship regulation, status and deference, marriage, parenthood, and socialization patterns remain to be explored in both Alberta and Canada.

Social Psychology and the Family

Chart II attempts to organize research questions concerning the internal characteristics of families. The cells created by the typology presented are more self-explanatory than in the preceding chart. In reference to marriage, for example, the questions to be raised follow naturally from the internal family characteristics identified. Accordingly, only the somewhat ambiguous factors are further clarified below.

Premarriage - dating, courtship, love, sexual attitudes and behaviors, mate choice, marriage preparation.
 Note: This category doesn't fit the typology very well except when premarriage activities occur in the context of parental influence. Nonetheless, research in North American society on these areas

CHART II

A TYPOLOGY OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS IN FAMILY RESEARCH

Internal Family Characteristics	Pre-Marriage	TYPE OF RELATIONSHIP					
		PARENT AND:			Sibling	Family As Unit	Kinship
		Marriage	Infants	Child			
Authority							
Division of Labor							
Relationship				2,7,12	31	35,37,40,41 42,10,13,30 31,44,47	
Emotional Climate						9,11,25,26, 33,34,38,43 1	
Values and Norms	24,46 20,21						
Consensus							
Interaction	20,21 24,46			2,7 12	45	45	
Structure and Linking Conditions						9,15,22,23 27,28,29,44 32,34,35,42	

tends to be more social-psychologically oriented than not.

Parent-child relations (infant, child, adolescent) - any relationship between parent(s) and child(ren) whether one-sided or two-sided.

Family as unit - the study of the entire family; if there are five persons in the family they are all studied as a social system or a combination of sub-systems.

Kinship - in-law relationships, visiting and help patterns.

Authority - the distribution and ranking of power and authority.

Division of Labor - the distribution and ranking of family responsibilities.

Relationships and emotional climate - disciplinary procedures, sanctioning system, personality, mental and social abilities, types of relationships; essentially any relationships where one family member may have an influence on another family member.

Values and norms - the influence of values and norms on relationships.

Consensus - content and degree.

Interaction - covert and overt behavior.

Structure and linking conditions - family size, age and sex composition of the family, father's education, occupation and ethnicity.

The scope of questions that may be asked from this typology are also profuse. It is immediately clear from Chart II that the majority of the issues concerning social psychology and the family have not been studied in Alberta. Nearly all research has been limited to the impact of parental characteristics on some aspect of the teenager's life. The published and unpublished references available on social psychology and the family in Alberta are annotated below.

Abu-Laban, Sharon M. (1)

1967 *Reference Relationships and Women's Role Preference.*

M.A. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

It was found in this study that the mother's role influenced her daughter's *marital role* preference as well as her daughter's perception of what others expected in the marital role. However, the daughter's role preferences were not consistent with her own expectations of the marital role. The author suggests that other factors may have an influence such as exposure to the mass media.

Acheson, John H. (2)

1969 *Relationships between Maternal Interference and the Reflective-Impulse Response Style of the Preschool Child.* M.E. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

Using videotape recordings of mother-child interactions, a negative relationship was found between maternal interference and response latency and a positive relationship between maternal interference and errors.

Brady, Paul (7)

1969 *Relationships between Maternal Control, Communication and Cognitive Behavior of the Preschool Child.* Ph.D. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

Utilizing videotape recordings of mother-child interactions, verbal and nonverbal participation, reflectiveness, and achievement among children were found to be positively related to maternal control.

Card, B.Y., et al. (9)

1966 *School Achievement in Rural Alberta.* A Report prepared for the Alberta Advisory Committee on Educational Research.

This study reports on several surveys of students in rural Alberta relative to the factors associated with learning. Family factors found to be significantly related to high achievement included high educational level of fathers and mothers, the completion of high school by older siblings, small families, high parental occupational aspirations, and active versus passive parental orientations.

Chabassol, David Johnstone (10)

1959 *Correlates of Academic Underachievement in Male Adolescents.* Ph.D. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

In attempting to identify the factors related to academic underachievement among male adolescents, it was found that the majority of underachievers had experienced parental rejection. Accordingly, there was also evidence of self-rejection and rejection among peers.

Clark, Earl A. (11)

1969 *Value Indicators in Three Canadian Adolescent Sub-Cultures.*
M.E. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

This study compared the values of adolescents in three different settings: Edmonton public schools, Jewish private schools, and Montreal Catholic public schools. Significant differences were found in several areas. Edmonton students placed higher value on good looks, popularity, drinking beer, and earning money. Jewish students valued higher education, homework, respect for parents, friendliness, honesty, and church attendance. French students, in contrast, placed higher value on dating and going steady, smoking, academic achievement and excellence, and watching television. These differences did not change when socio-economic status was controlled.

Davis, Roger A. (12)

1969 *Conceptual Complexity and Parental Child Rearing Practices.*
M.E. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

This study attempts to assess the possible relationships between conceptual ability and socio-economic status and parental punishment and reward. It is concluded that a nurturant environment, low in parental control, provides the optimum conditions for the development of conceptual ability. The intricate relationship between reward and punishment, in providing a "nurturant environment," however, is suggested as a possible contaminator of the findings.

Denton, Leonard R. (13)

1967 *Perception of Parents as Related to Levels of Perceptual Differentiation.* Ph.D. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

This study deals with the significance of the perceptions one has of parental behavior on one's capacity to function in a perceptually differentiated manner. Some support was found for the hypothesis that love (positive loadings on the love-reject scale) and permissiveness (positive loadings on the casual-demand scale) were positively related to perceptual differentiation measures. Differences were apparent between high school boys and college boys and between boys and girls.

Dyck, Harold J. (14)

1970 *Social Futures Alberta 1970-2005*. Edmonton: Human Resources Research Council.

Utilizing the Delphi forecasting technique, forecasts in eleven different areas are presented and discussed. The forecasts, in essence, represent the projections of experts in their areas of particular competence. Conclusions drawn in the family area include the following.

"The nuclear family will persist. It will, however, undergo substantial changes. The values pertaining to the permanence of marriage will likely continue to be downgraded. Fundamental modification in parental roles as a consequence of changes in work and leisure will have a considerable impact on family structure and child-rearing practices. Increasingly, child-rearing will become the responsibility of agencies outside the home, especially as increasing numbers of mothers enter the labor force. Parents will have even less influence on their children in the future. Peer groups will gain greater control over socialization processes. Birthrates will probably decline, but not sufficiently to avoid increased governmental regulation of parenthood towards the end of the century. However, before governments become directly involved in population control, they will use a number of monetary and educational leverage points to regulate birthrates." Quoted from the introduction to The Family section of the report.

Farley, Reginald P. (15)

1969 *Investigation of Social Integration and Aspirations in Two Relatively Deprived Communities*. M.A. Thesis. The University of Calgary.

This study demonstrates that anomie varies inversely with income, aspiration levels vary directly with income, and that retention of learning varies directly with income.

Hobart, Charles W. (20)

1971 *Sexual Permissiveness in Young Canadians: A Factorial Study*. Unpublished paper. The University of Alberta.

This paper reports on a study of attitudes toward sexual permissiveness, experience of various forms of premarital sexual intimacy, and the factors associated with a permissive orientation toward premarital sexual experience among a random sample of students from The University of Alberta and NAIT. It is clear that both male and female students are willing to grant more sexual freedom to men

than to women. Women are found to be less permissive in their attitudes toward male and female sexual behavior than are men. The discrepancies between behavior seen as permissible for males and for females are greater among female respondents in most cases than among male respondents. It was further found that the Alberta university students are the most permissive group while the NAIT students are distinctly less permissive. Relative to actual behavior, 60 per cent of university males, 56 per cent of the NAIT males, 50 per cent of university females, and 37 per cent of NAIT females had experienced intercourse. Of these, about one-third of the university males, one-fifth of the NAIT males, two-thirds of the university females, and four-fifths of the NAIT females said they were in love with their intercourse partners. Using multiple regression techniques, it was found that three factors accounted for 75 per cent of the explained variance in permissiveness: (a) perceived similarity of values to parents or peers, (b) religiosity and (c) the sex of the participant. Early courtship and courtship duration modified these relationships somewhat.

Hobart, Charles W. (21)

1971 *Changing Orientations Toward Courtship and Marriage: A Study of Young Canadians*. Unpublished manuscript. The University of Alberta.

This study represents a comprehensive analysis of the sexual attitudes and behaviors of Canadian youth in Alberta and elsewhere. Extensive data is included with respect to attitudes toward trial marriage, expectations of self and of mate toward marriage, the conflicting roles of women, and family size. The research was conducted under the auspices of the Royal Commission on the Status of Women.

Hughes, Robert H. (22)

1968 *A Study of High School Dropouts in Alberta*. A Report prepared for the Alberta Department of Youth.

Relative to explaining the characteristics of students who drop out of school, the student's ability, his performance, and the father's educational attainment are found to explain nearly 51 per cent of the variance.

Jones, Pauline A. (23)

1965 *An Investigation of the Relationship of Integration Setting to Need for Achievement*. M.E. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

The study was designed to investigate the influence of two contrasting integration settings - the entrepreneurial and the bureaucratic (the integration setting of the family being determined on the basis of the father's occupation) - upon the student's motivation to achieve. The sample was composed of Grade 8 middle-class boys who hold membership in a Protestant religious group. The level of achievement motivation was found higher among entrepreneurial groups for both the rural and urban areas. It was suggested that the occupational engagements of the father have an effect on his values and expectations for child-rearing, and in this way influence the son's achievement motivations. The hypothesis that the level of achievement motivation of rural students would be higher than that of urban students was not supported.

Kupfer, George (47)

1966 *Middle-Class Delinquency in a Canadian City*. Ph.D. Thesis. University of Washington.

The data for this study were derived from a sample of all tenth grade males in two high schools in Edmonton, Alberta. The final sample size consisted of 571 boys. The research underscores the significance of family relationships in juvenile delinquency. A low degree of family control and a lack of communication between youth and their parents was found to be positively related to delinquent behavior. These relationships held for both higher and lower social and educational status youth.

Lambert, Ann

1968 *High School Dating*. Unpublished paper. The University of Alberta.

In a study done for a term project in HE 455, data were collected from a sample of 191 students at an Edmonton high school. The paper compares a group of early dates (first date at 12 or younger) and late daters (first date at 15 or older). Some support was obtained for the following statements:

1. Early daters dated more often and more seriously than later daters.
2. Early daters experienced less parental control.
3. Early daters more often had older siblings.
4. Early daters came from homes with lower educational levels.

5. Early daters came from assimilated rather than recently immigrated families.
6. Early daters were less involved in organizations.
7. Early daters thought more often of marriage.

Larsen, Donald E. and Baha Abu-Laban (25)
 1968 "Norm Qualities and Deviant Drinking Behavior." *Social Problems*, 15 (4, Spring): 441-450.

Three types of norms are identified, including proscriptive (one should not drink), prescriptive (guidelines concerning acceptable drinking behavior) and nonperscriptive (few guidelines or none at all). It was found that three of ten persons perceive the church and parents to be proscriptive while one of ten perceive co-workers' and friends' norms that are proscriptive (seven of ten are drinkers) and second relative to parents (six of ten).

Larsen, Donald E. and Baha Abu-Laban (26)
 1971 *Drinking Norms and Alcoholism*. Unpublished manuscript. The University of Alberta.

In studying a sample of alcoholics relative to a sample of non-alcoholics, it was first found that the parents and churches of non-alcoholics are twice as likely to provide prescriptive (guidelines) norms to drinking. Conversely, parents of alcoholics are three times as likely as parents of non-alcoholics to transmit proscriptive (DO NOT DRINK) norms.

Lawlor, Stan D. (27)
 1967 *Social Class, Achievement Orientation, and Expected Occupational Mobility*. M.A. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

This study shows that the lower classes appear to be more highly achievement-oriented when they perceive the opportunity for tangible reward, whereas the middle classes appear to value achievement as an end itself, family size notwithstanding.

Locke, Keith (28)
 1969 *The Social Content of Educational Aspirations and Expectations: An Exploratory Study of Edmonton Junior High School Students*. M.A. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

In this study it was found that the tracking process within the school operated to lower the educational expectations and academic self-assessment of students from working class homes.

Mackie, Marlene M. (29)

1965 *The Defector from the Hutterite Colony: A Pilot Study.*
M.A. Thesis. The University of Calgary.

Defection was found to be related to the defectors' low status in the colony and the lack of colony cohesion. A second group of defectors were the sons of those in leadership roles. The author argues that these defectors had a negative social psychological response to the high status position of their families.

McBride, Billie E.J. (30)

1961 *The Parental Identifications of Adolescents.* M.E. Thesis.
The University of Alberta.

Partial support was obtained for three hypotheses: (1) masculinity in male subjects was related to the perceived masculinity in fathers; (2) father identification among girls is more common than mother identification among boys; (3) the degree of mother and father identification decreases with age. Father identification was found to be similar among Grade 7 and 10 girls. The girl's femininity was found to be unrelated to her perception of her mother's femininity.

Mosychuk, Harry (31)

1969 *Differential Home Environments and Mental Ability Patterns.*
Ph.D. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

Academic and vocational aspirations and expectations of parents, knowledge of, and interest in, child's academic and intellectual development and the material and organizational opportunities for the use and development of language were found to be significantly related to mental abilities. Female dominance, overprotection, and authoritarianism were found to be negatively correlated with reasoning abilities and WISC performance I.Q.

North, Joseph (32)

1965 *The Relationship of Broken Homes to the Performance of School Children.* M.E. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

Students from broken homes were found to attend school less

frequently than students from intact homes. Further, students from fatherless homes were lower in scholastic achievements than students from motherless homes.

Orme, Michael E.J. (33)

1963 *Dogmatism in Parent-Child Relationships*. M.E. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

This study is based on the assumption that child-rearing practices are related to adult economic roles. Self-employed (entrepreneurial) and professional (bureaucratic) values were employed in the analysis. It was found that entrepreneurial mothers provided experiences designed to develop self-control, preferred practices which would facilitate a manipulative, active outlook, and maintain more traditional values. Entrepreneurial fathers were significantly more traditional and dogmatic than their wives. Similarly, entrepreneurial boys were found to be significantly more dogmatic than entrepreneurial girls.

Parry, Robert S. (34)

1967 *The Relational Value-Orientation of Grade 10 Students and of Their Fathers*. M.A. Thesis. The University of Calgary.

This study found that adolescents are significantly less individualistic and other-oriented than their fathers. The occupational level or type of responsibility the father held did not alter this relationship. Adolescents who did not participate in extra-curricular activities were more similar in their values to their fathers than other adolescents. The author suggests that these findings lend support to the existence of an adolescent sub-culture.

Patsula, Philip J. (35)

1969 *Felt Powerlessness as Related to Perceived Parental Behavior*. Ph.D. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

Findings which were significant at the .05 level were that the adolescent's perception of himself as being powerless was more pronounced among individuals who perceived their parents as psychologically controlling as opposed to psychologically autonomy-granting, rejecting as opposed to accepting, and promoting lax control rather than firm control. Individuals of lower socio-economic status and lower scholastic aptitude also tended to exhibit greater powerlessness. No sex differences were found.

Rollans, William H. (37)

1966 *Group Counseling Parents of Underachieving High School Students*. M.E. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

Parents of underachieving high school students were given group counseling at two-week intervals over nineteen weeks. In contrast to expectation, underachieving students whose parents had participated in group counseling, did not show greater academic improvement than a control group of underachieving students.

Saruk, Alec (38)

1966 *Academic Performance of Students of Ukrainian Descent and the Cultural Orientation of their Parents*. M.E. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

Dividing Ukrainian parents into four cultural orientation groups (bicultural, English, Ukrainian, and apathetic), it was hypothesized that academic performance would be higher for students from English and bicultural oriented groups. The cultural orientation of parents was found to be unrelated to academic performance.

Scott, Alvin G. (40)

1964 *California Psychological Inventory Personality Characteristics of Mothers of Antisocial Adolescents*. M.A. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

This study attempted to ascertain whether mothers of antisocial adolescents could, as a group, be differentiated with regard to their personality characteristics from mothers of adolescents not involved in antisocial activities. Lying and stealing was defined as antisocial for male children, promiscuous sexual behavior was defined as antisocial for female for female children. No statistically significant differences were found. The CPI, however, differentiated significantly between mothers of antisocial *male* adolescents and the mothers of antisocial *female* adolescents.

Siperko, Gloria M. Burima (41)

1970 *The Relationships of Neighbourhood and Parental Social Controls to Teenage Misbehavior*. M.A. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

In attempting to explain teenager misbehavior, it is found that family control and cohesion are more efficient predictors of low misbehavior than neighborhood control and cohesion. However, family

and neighborhood control together provide the most efficient prediction.

Souch, Stanley (42)

1970 *A Cross-Sectional Study of Reflection-Impulsivity with Special Reference to Sex, Social Class, and Maternal Conceptual Systems*. Ph.D. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

In seeking to determine the factors associated with different responses (those who carefully consider their response and those who respond impulsively) it was found that: (a) greater numbers of impulsive boys and girls come from lower socio-economic homes, and (b) the impulsive orientation is unrelated to the mother's level of conceptual development.

Thompson, Austin E. (43)

1967 *Aspirations and Perceptions of Parents and Senior High School Students in an Alberta County System*. M.E. Thesis. The University of Calgary.

Although the educational level of non-farm parents is significantly higher than farm parents, the data show no differences in the educational levels of farm and non-farm students. Further, both farm and non-farm parents have similar educational aspirations for their children.

Tomko, Tony M. (44)

1969 *Personality Correlates of Home Disruption*. M.E. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

The relative adjustment of adolescents in six different areas (self-control, socialization, sociability, self-acceptance, femininity, and good impression) were related to intact and broken home conditions. Adolescents coming from broken homes differed from adolescents from intact homes in the areas of self-control, socialization, and good impression.

Van Hesteren, Francis N. (45)

1969 *Factors Related to Educational Noncontinuance*. M.E. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

Noncontinuing students tended to spend less time discussing their post-high school plans with their parents. Parents

were seen to have little influence in their choice patterns. In addition, noncontinuing students tended to have proportionately more qualified siblings who did not continue their education after high school, although the subjects claimed they had not been influenced by their siblings.

Wohlestein, Ronald T. (46)

1970 *Premarital Sexual Permissiveness: A Replication.* M.A. Thesis. The University of Alberta.

Using a 20 per cent probability sample drawn from all third and fourth year full-time students enrolled in the faculties of Arts, Science, Engineering, and Nursing at The University of Alberta and from all full-time students at NAIT, this study attempted to replicate an earlier study by I. Reiss, *The Social Context of Premarital Sexual Permissiveness*. The findings may be briefly stated as follows. First, sexual permissiveness is related to liberalism. Liberalism is defined to include persons with no religious affiliation, low church attendance, living in city of 100,000 or more, low on romantic-love beliefs, in love twice or more, and whose standard does not apply to others. Second, permissiveness was found to be significantly related to the age at which dating began for males (13 or less), exclusive dating for males (particular individuals rather than playing the field), number of steadies for both males and females, the number of love relationships for females, and the number petted with for both males and females. Third, students who saw their standards as similar to the mother or father showed a lower level of sexual permissiveness. Similarly, when the standards of friends and peers were compared, sexual permissiveness was found to be higher.

The research findings concerning the impact of emotive factors, structural factors, and values held by parents on the achievement, self-conception, self-control, and deviant activities of youth are extremely consistent. Indeed, there are no contradictions, only modifications or weak relationships in a few studies (Scott, 1964; Souch, 1970). Further, the research is also consistent with a vast number of studies elsewhere in Canada and the United States. Values of parents emerge as salient factors in several areas including achievement, drinking behavior and alcoholism. The major exception to the influence of parental values is the study by Saruk (1966). In this case, however, it is likely that other factors should have been considered such as the affiliation patterns and ethnic commitments of the four differing groups.

It is well to emphasize that even though there are a number of studies in Alberta dealing with the characteristics and importance

of parent-teenager relationships, there are several glaring omissions. These include the nature and content of parent-teenager communication, the influence of parents and peers during adolescence *relative* to other agents of influence, the normative dimensions of teenage family responsibilities, the power and deference patterns in parent-adolescent relationships, the intricacies of value consensus and dissension between mothers, fathers, and their adolescent children, the parental antecedents of the so-called "problem" youth, among others. All of these issues require further research in Alberta and elsewhere. It need not be emphasized that marriage, parent-infant, parent-child, sibling, and kinship relationships command the attention of the researcher.

Attention to the empty cells so apparent in Charts I and II does not provide automatic justification for the support of this research in Alberta. However, the proportion of unpublished research to published research lends considerable support to the increased input of funds. Further, the research "posture" for Canada differs minimally from Alberta. Family research, in general, is in short supply. To the extent that the unanswered questions reflected in this chapter reflect pressing needs relative to policy, understanding, or explanation, the allocation of funds for family research should be given serious consideration.

Summary

The study of the family may be organized into two general areas: studies relating to the family's relationship to society and the internal characteristics of marriage and family systems. A typology of research possibilities in social organization and the family was developed which permits the identification of 30 major related areas of family research. Family research in Alberta to this point shows some relationship to only 13 of these areas of study. Even in the absence of critical assessment relative to measurement and theory, the research on the family in society represents only a limited appraisal of the important questions *within the areas studied*. A typology of research possibilities in social psychology and the family was similarly developed. In this case, 56 major categories of family research are identified. Only five of them are researched extensively. An additional sex research areas commanded one to three studies. In consequence, the paucity of research on family relationships is pronounced. Studies on the importance of parental influence during adolescence predominate. However, it is suggested that the majority of these studies fail to consider several of the pervasive parent-teenager issues in modern society. Additional research is needed in all aspects of family study.

CHAPTER IV

FAMILY SERVICES

Introduction

This chapter considers the nature and distribution of social services to families (and family members) in Alberta. The importance of these services to families and individuals living in post-industrial society cannot be ignored nor de-emphasized. Whereas industrial society may be characterized by such terms as functional interdependence, job specialization, the work ethic, and vertical mobility, *post-industrial society* represents even higher levels of job specialization and interdependence while at the same time being characterized by a wavering work ethic, affluence, physical mobility of unprecedented proportion, and enhanced egoism. With new ways of life come new problems: career choice, the management of resources, negligent parenthood, emotional disturbance, anomie (alienation), delinquency, and training for flexibility and the use of leisure. In consequence, the concept of "human need" is no longer limited to the emergency and token care of the destitute. Educating agencies and social services must reorganize their efforts toward assisting people of all levels to find a satisfying self-identity. Indeed, a satisfactory compromise between stability and change in the interest of social order will be a function of the capacity and effectiveness of socializing institutions and the preventive and facilitative social services.

The capacity and effectiveness of social services, however, can be easily countermanded by several factors. First, family service agencies, in particular, often emphasize the preservation of traditional family structures and values. A genuine appreciation for social change in marriage and family patterns is often missing. Agencies of this kind cannot hope to promote individual and family adjustment unless they also find ways of isolating and insulating their clients from society. Family life education as well can easily fall into this trap.

Second, the promotion of alternative family life styles or substitutionary child-rearing forms is equally unrepresentative of reality. Counseling or educating from an ideological base does not help a particular person or family in need.

Third, regardless of the capacity (relative to cost and availability) of agencies, their effectiveness can be allayed by the inadequacy of staff training programs, the lack of adequate knowledge and emphatic skills, and the inefficient management of human and financial resources. Agencies often justify their existence because

they have "helped" people. These same agencies seldom tabulate the number of people they have "harmed", or the number of people that have only been temporarily helped or remained unchanged by their efforts.

Fourth, a large number of agencies distort reality by focusing on the repair of the individual so he can fit into his family and community. Recent research clearly suggests the importance of treating the individual as a *part* of his family, where possible, seeing the entire family unit as a group (Younghusband, 1965; Feldman and Scherz, 1968; GAP, 1970). Agencies reporting family services typically see individuals, not families. Even group-oriented family services simply put a member of a family into a group with members from other families. The family concept of counseling and social service still largely remains an exception, not the rule.

Fifth and finally, two related problems may be identified. Family services within a given geographical area may be extraordinarily inadequate but still may overlap in an excessive number of respects. In contrast, an abundance of agencies may continue to ignore certain salient human needs as well as provide redundant services within the area of human need they serve. The significance of these matters is well illustrated in a book by Cella and Lane (1964) on *The Coordination of Family and Child Welfare* programs. These issues, among others, should be considered in any evaluation of family services in Alberta.

Ideally, the analysis for this section of the report would include a comprehensive and critical assessment of: (a) the development of social services in the province; (b) the current attempts to coordinate and integrate social services in the community as reflected in the efforts of the Department of Social Development and the recent project design of the Westmount Project in Edmonton; (c) the recommendations of various reports on specific aspects of family service such as *Day Care Needs in Calgary* (published by the Social Planning Council in Calgary); (d) a review of selected agencies serving families relative to competence, resources, and services; and (e) the effectiveness of present services relative to the type of people being served and the adequacy of the service. Unfortunately, the purpose of this report must be more modest. The remainder of this chapter provides a cursory analysis of the distribution of personnel and services by census divisions. The implications of these findings are briefly drawn.

Personnel

Many differing types of professional and para-professional people are involved in serving the needs of family members, including social workers, guidance counselors, lay counselors, lay group workers,

psychologists, psychiatrists, physicians, lawyers, probation officers, pastors, home economists, and community development workers. Their responsibilities vary widely in purpose and scope. Some focus on the needs of individuals almost exclusive of their families; others direct their efforts to the needs of individuals. Some are affiliated with agencies; others maintain a private practice.

Assuming that a range of services is essential in meeting the needs of individuals, families, and communities, it is useful to ascertain the distribution of selected services in the province. Table 24 presents an estimate of the distribution of social workers, guidance counselors, psychologists, and psychiatrists for the various census divisions in Alberta. It may be emphasized that the data are limited in several respects. First, the number of professional personnel listed for each census division may be inaccurate because of the absence of a central source of information. The number of social workers listed, for example, reflects the simple count by location, or probation officers and social workers employed by the Department of Social Development and the Attorney General's Department and the current members of the Alberta Social Workers' Association.¹ Although these sources provide a relatively complete listing, there are undoubtedly several social workers employed by other governmental or private agencies who are not members of the association. Second, the number of professional personnel actually serving a given census division may be considerably higher due to the system of temporary services provided to certain areas. The Family Service Association, for example, provides counseling, family life education, and related services to the town of Stettler. Third, the access (i.e., commuting distance) of residents in outlying communities to professional services in urban centers within the major census divisions cannot be ignored. In spite of these limitations, however, an overview of the availability and accessibility of professional personnel in Alberta can be instructive.

As can be seen in Table 24, Census Divisions 3 and 4 do not have any social workers, whereas Calgary and Edmonton areas have nearly 70 social workers for each 100,000 people. The province as a whole has about 54 social workers for each 100,000 people. Thirteen of the census divisions have proportionately less than the average number of social workers. Preventive and rehabilitative social services may, of course, be more important in urban areas than in rural areas. However, given the fact that social workers in Edmonton generally agree that they are only scratching the surface relative to human need, the proportion of social workers in Census Division 11 provides a rough guide or reference point for other census divisions. Accordingly, the number in parentheses

¹ Overlap was eliminated by cross-referencing the data made available.

TABLE 24
PERSONNEL SERVING FAMILY MEMBERS FOR CENSUS DIVISIONS, ALBERTA, 1968

Census Division	Population ¹	Social Workers ³		School Counselors ⁴				Psychologists ⁵		Psychiatrists ⁶	
		Number	Ratio ²	Jr. High/Elementary Number	Ratio	Senior High Number	Ratio	Number	Ratio	Number	Ratio
1	38,000	(27) 7	34.2	(6) 5	13.2	13	34.2	(7)	0.0	(3)	0.0
2	83,000	(58) 44	53.0	(13) 9	16.8	(28) 11	13.3	(15)	4.8	(7)	3.6
3	31,000	(22) -	0.0	(5) -	0.0	(11) 1	3.2	(6)	3.2	(2)	0.0
4	14,000	(10) -	0.0	(2) -	0.0	(5) 1	7.1	(5)	0.0	(1)	0.0
5	36,000	(25) 7	19.7	(6) 2	5.6	(12) 4	11.1	(6)	0.0	(3)	0.0
6	403,000	(282) 271	67.2	(64) 24	6.0	(137) 67	16.6	(73) 59	14.6	(32) 26	6.5
7	40,000	(28) 6	15.0	(6) 2	5.0	(14) 7	17.5	(7)	0.0	(3)	0.0
8	85,000	(60) 25	29.4	(14) 10	11.8	(29) 14	16.5	(15)	3.5	(7)	4.7
9	17,000	(12) 7	41.2	(3) 1	5.9	(6) 3	17.6	(3)	0.0	(1)	0.0
10	67,000	(47) 13	19.4	(11) 3	4.5	(23) 12	17.9	(12)	1.5	(5)	0.0
11	503,000	350	69.6	83	16.5	(171) 69	13.7	91	18.1	39	7.8
12	52,000	(36) 21	40.4	(8) 6	11.5	(18) 5	9.6	(9)	0.0	(4)	0.0
13	44,000	(31) 11	25.0	(7) 5	11.4	(15) 9	20.5	(8)	0.0	(4)	0.0
14	21,000	(15) 9	42.8	(3) -	0.0	(7) 2	9.5	(3)	0.0	(2)	0.0
15	92,000	(64) 45	48.9	(15) 4	4.3	(31) 14	15.2	(17)	0.0	(7)	0.0
TOTALS	1,526,000	(1,068) 822	53.9	(244) 154	10.1	(519) 232	15.2	(275) 159	10.4	(122) 72	4.7

¹ Population estimates for 1968.

² Estimated number of personnel per 100,000 population.

³ Number based on information obtained from the Department of Social Development, Department of Attorney-General, and the Alberta Social Workers Association

⁴ Number based on information obtained from the Supervisor of Education. Department of Education, Province of Alberta

⁵ Number based on information obtained from the Registrar of the Alberta Psychological Association.

⁶ Number based on information obtained from the Secretary of the Alberta Psychiatric Association

⁷ The number in parentheses represents the number of personnel needed to meet the proportionate standard in census division 11 (Note that census division 1 is the standard for senior high school counselors).

represents the number of social workers needed in each census division to meet the proportionate standard in Census Division 11. Most of the census divisions, with the exception of 2, 6, and 16 require more than twice as many social workers as they presently have. In the province at large approximately 250 additional social workers were needed to meet the needs of the 1968 population, not to mention current or the projected needs of the population in Alberta.

Guidance counselors seldom have direct contact with families. Their interest in facilitating the academic progress of students, vocational counseling, and limited psychological counseling, however, indirectly assists the family. Where there are salient family problems, the guidance counselor can readily refer both child and family to other professional services in the community.

Census Divisions 3, 4, and 14 do not have any counselors in elementary or junior high grades. Census Division 11 has nearly 17 for each 100,000 people. Census Division 6, the Calgary area, in contrast, has six counselors for each 100,000 people. Using the Edmonton area as a reference point it is apparent that elementary and junior high counselors are needed in nearly all census divisions. Census Divisions 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 14, and 15 proportionately require more than three times as many counselors as they presently have. The significance of career choice in post-industrial society provides strong support for vocational counseling at the senior high level and preferably before. It is of interest that the Medicine Hat area (Census Division 1) has proportionately more than two and one half times as many high school counselors as the Edmonton area. Assuming in this case that Medicine Hat represents a reasonable referent point, all the remaining census divisions require proportionately twice as many high school counselors as they had in 1968 in order to meet the counseling needs of students in 1968. Alberta as a whole required 90 additional elementary and junior high counselors and nearly 300 additional high school counselors in 1968.

The counseling activities of psychologists and psychiatrists are more directly related to the family due to the fact that many individual problems emanate from parent-child or marital relationships. Psychiatrists more often are affiliated with hospitals and are more qualified to distinguish physical from emotional disturbance in patients. Psychologists most often deal with people who become aware of their emotional problems before hospitalization is necessary. The treatment of children, couples, and families, however, still remains a rare form of emotional care in Alberta.

As revealed in Table 24, the majority of census divisions do not have psychologists or psychiatrists. Only Census Divisions 6 and 11 approximate a reasonable, though limited, availability standard. In

1968, Alberta as a whole required about 116 more psychologists and 50 more psychiatrists. Given the increase in population between 1968 and the present, it is likely that these estimates are far too low.

The data generally reveal that the majority of census divisions had an inordinate under-supply of all professional services in 1968. The correction of these deficits will require the increased production of trained personnel and increased provincial financial support of social services in areas other than Edmonton and Calgary. The cost to the consumer should continue to be underwritten by the Alberta Medical Insurance plan. The present cost structure for psychologists should be modified to accommodate the actual professional fees required to complete the psychological services needed by the individual as it is now for psychiatrists.

Agencies

Services to families reflect a wide variation of purposes and techniques. Private clubs, churches, nurseries (public and private), extension and adult educational services, unmarried parent services, family planning clinics, senior citizen and nursing homes, institutions of special care for the blind, handicapped or retarded, drop-in centres, dental and health services, and many other services effectively illustrate the diversity and scope of societal interest in the welfare of families. Social workers are most often affiliated with agencies providing multi-faceted services, whereas psychologists and psychiatrists are more often connected with agencies or organizations emphasizing more limited purposes.

The organization of agencies serving families in Table 25 is artificial in several respects. First, a single agency often provides services in each of the four major types of services identified (marriage and family counseling, family life education, supplementary child care, and special family services). Second, a single agency may have a very limited capacity (one or two highly specialized staff members), another may have maximized its community capacity by employing a staff of 20 or more variously specialized personnel and a large number of lay assistants, and have unusually varied facilities. Third, it is unrealistic to attempt to define an ideal number of agencies for a given census division. It is preferable to define the availability and accessibility of services. The latter, however, cannot be done without an extensive study of every agency in the province. Short of that, the analysis to follow is based on the distribution of agencies by type of service.

There are a total of 31 agencies providing marriage and family counseling in Alberta. Eighteen of them are located in the

Edmonton and Calgary areas. Additional counseling services are provided by private psychologists and psychiatrists affiliated with the Universities of Calgary and Alberta. For the most part, their services are limited to referrals and seldom include more than one member of the family. Counseling services provided within agencies are provided largely by trained (MSW) social workers. Table 25 reveals that Census Divisions 3, 4, 5, 7, and 14 do not provide family services except in periodic visits of provincial employees. Few would disagree with the assumption that the need for depth counseling is far greater than current agencies can provide. Further, few agencies are able to use conjoint therapy or family therapy techniques due to a paucity of staff, let alone adequately trained staff.

Family life education is defined by the Department of Social Development to include "everything from defensive driving to seminars on drug abuse to sensitivity training and sessions on group process." (Department of Social Development, Edmonton, Alberta). Other agencies define the concept more narrowly to refer to "education related to family life, marriage, communication, children and parenting" (Family Service Association, Edmonton). Four agencies in Calgary and seven in Edmonton provide family life education. The services outside these areas are provided by the Department of Social Development, with the exception of the Lethbridge and Medicine Hat Family Service Bureaus. The Family Life Education Council of Edmonton is exclusively concerned with programming and group services related to family life education.

In addition, both the separate and public school systems provide extension courses and school options in family life. It is likely that these courses will become readily available in most communities in Alberta within the next five years. The development of a K-12 program in family life education in the schools is clearly on the horizon. This form of family service is undoubtedly the most efficient and effective in the long run because of its emphasis on prevention rather than correction. The need for rehabilitative social services, with appropriate education, would be considerably reduced.

Supplementary child care services are defined to include public and private day care, play schools, Headstart, and other preschool programs. As can be seen, Medicine Hat has a high ratio of supplementary services. In this case, there are two private play schools, two preschool programs, and a day care center supported by the Department of Social Development. Calgary has 47 differing supplementary care opportunities for children compared to 37 in Edmonton. The Department of Social Development supports three preschool Headstart programs in the Crowsnest Pass area (Census Division 9). As emphasized in a recent publication of the Vanier Institute of the Family, *Day Care - A Resource for the Contemporary Family*, day care is no longer a provision for families of lower socio-economic levels

TABLE 25
AGENCIES SERVING FAMILIES FOR CENSUS DIVISIONS, ALBERTA, 1968³

Census Divisions	Population ¹	Marriage and Family Counseling ²		Family Life Education		Supplementary Child Care		Special Family Services	
		Number	Ratio	Number	Ratio	Number	Ratio	Number	Ratio
1	38,000	1	2.6	1	2.6	5	13.2	1	2.6
2	83,000	1	1.2	1	1.2	3	3.6	1	1.2
3	31,000	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	0.0
4	14,000	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	0.0
5	36,000	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	0.0
6	403,000	8	2.0	4	1.0	47	11.7	21	5.2
7	40,000	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	-	-	0.0
8	85,000	2	2.4	1	1.2	1	1.2	3	3.5
9	17,000	1	5.9	1	5.9	3	17.6	1	5.9
10	67,000	2	3.0	2	3.0	1	1.5	-	0.0
11	503,000	10	2.0	7	1.4	37	7.4	30	6.0
12	52,000	3	5.8	-	-	5	9.6	2	3.8
13	44,000	1	2.3	1	2.3	2	4.6	1	2.3
14	21,000	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	0.0	-	0.0
15	92,000	2	2.2	7	7.6	4	4.4	-	0.0
TOTALS	1,526,000	31		25		106		60	

¹ Population estimates for 1968

² Number of agencies per 100,000 population.

³ The number of agencies is based on information obtained from the Department of Social Development, Department of Health, and a detailed analysis of all telephone books in the Province

alone. The clientele of supplementary child care services will increasingly become the middle-income family. In view of this increasing need, the need for day care services will far exceed the supply.

Special family services include adoption services, debt counseling, foster home care and homemaker service, family planning, legal aid, unmarried parent services, services to the aged, and services to alcoholics. These services are minimally provided by 21 agencies in Calgary and 30 agencies in Edmonton. No services of this nature are available in seven census divisions.

The above analysis of agency services to families clearly illustrates the current inadequacy of services within as well as across census divisions. The efforts of the Department of Social Development in extending services to outlying areas is commendable; however, there remains a long way to go.

In general, several compelling questions remain. First, do families seeking the aid of agencies represent those who most need help? Those concerned enough to contact agencies for help may need help far less than those who are either unwilling or unable to recognize their needs. Second, do certain agencies cater to certain groups to the relative neglect of others? For example, do family life education agencies command the interest of middle income groups rather than lower income groups? Third, do agencies supported by public funds utilize these funds to advantage? A cost-service ratio needs to be developed to evaluate objectively the effectiveness of programming and related family services.

Summary

This chapter has attempted to describe the distribution of professional personnel and family agencies by census division for the Province of Alberta. It has been apparent that Census Divisions 6 and 11 provide the widest range of services in the greatest proportion. Other census divisions are grossly neglected. Relative to the emotional needs of family members in post-industrial society, considerable expansion is needed on all social service fronts.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

This study has explored three basic indicators of family life in Alberta including demographic and research materials as well as the scope and distribution of family services. These indicators together provide an informative view of the paucity of research on the family system and the inadequacy of services to families in the province. They also provide evidence for several conclusions about the characteristics, trends, and problematic aspects of family life. The following is a selective analysis of the findings and attendant implications of this study.

It has been seen that divorce rates are unusually high in Alberta. At present about 125 divorces per 100,000 persons occur each year. This rate is twice as high as it was in 1955 and nearly two and one half times as high as it is in Canada. It was also learned that Calgary, Red Deer, Lethbridge, and Edmonton have divorce rates nearly twice as high as the provincial average, while areas like Hanna and Drumheller have rates considerably below the average. Given the recent changes in the Divorce Act and the reduced cost of legal fees in obtaining a divorce, it is likely that will continue to increase.

In reality, the present divorce rate need not be seen as an indicator of either family or societal decay. In the first place, the divorce rate in the United States is two or three times as high as it is in Alberta. Second, the divorce rate includes those who have obtained a divorce more than once. Most who divorce remarry and remain married to their second spouse. Nonetheless, divorce may be taken as an indicator of inadequate preparation for marriage. Further, the divorce rate and the personal pain of divorce can be reduced by appropriate family services. Indeed, the Divorce Act requires the provision of counseling services. Given the scope and distribution of family services in the province, it is apparent that adequate help is not available where it is needed, let alone when it is needed.

The percentage of live illegitimate births in Alberta has been found to be half again as high as it is in Canada. Since 1960, the rate has been nearly doubled to an all-time high of 12 per cent. In Census Divisions 9, 3, 12, and 15 the percentage of illegitimate births varies from 14 per cent to nearly 22 per cent. These census divisions, in particular, have an over-representation of Indians. Indeed, the recent report of the Department of Health reports that of all Indian births in Alberta, 46 per cent are illegitimate (Department of Health, 1968:7). It will be recalled as well that Indian households, compared

to white households, have nearly twice as many persons, are more often extended families (two or three families living together), and average two persons per room (Card, et al., 1963). At the same time, it is apparent that family services are woefully inadequate in every census division where Indians live. There is, of course, no justification for imposing the values of white society on Indian culture. However, the evidence lends credence to programs which provide better housing, family planning programs, and counseling services.

The research concerning the influence of parents on their offspring in Alberta provides insight into the dynamics of parental responsibility. Response patterns, cognitive abilities, academic performance, educational aspirations and expectations, values, self-control, sexual attitudes and behaviors, delinquency, alienation, and alcoholism have all been shown to be related to aspects of parental attitudes, behaviors, or social status. Although there are many unanswered questions concerning adult influence, research in Alberta continues to document the importance of adult responsibility in the socialization of its young. The adequate care and nurturance of children requires better trained parents, the provision of day care facilities with professionally trained staff, or the development of substitutionary methods of child-rearing (Larson, 1970; 1971). Family life education is clearly one way of improving family life in Alberta. Yet the evidence for these kinds of services in the province suggests that we have a long way to go.

Implications for Research and Policy

This study has provided clear evidence in support of further family research in Alberta. It is unnecessary, of course, to duplicate the numerous studies done in other areas. The emphasis should instead be placed on assessing those features of Alberta society which have distinctive implications for family life and policy. Accordingly, the following recommendations reflect this perspective:

1. Demographic data provide a basic and often neglected source of research. In addition, the data provide insight into the differences between Alberta and other provinces and within Alberta itself. Most of the published data remain unanalyzed. Unpublished data as well are readily accessible if requested. In consequence, funds should be made available for studies utilizing demographic resources, whether of a historical or comparative nature. Data from the 1971 census will provide a particularly attractive source of research.

2. A number of questions cannot be answered through the analysis of aggregate data. Accordingly, given appropriate conditions

and guarantees, selected researchers should be permitted access to individual demographic data. Record linkage research in the family area should be funded with discretion.

3. Alberta contains a unique distribution of ethnic groups. Considering the evidence of differential family patterns, research further exploring the social organization of the family among differing ethnic groups of differing socio-economic levels should be funded. The essence of kinship regulation, status and deference, marriage, parenthood, and socialization patterns remain basically unexplored for most levels of Alberta society. In this context, studies cannot ignore the significance of mobility, geographical and social, in family life.

4. As revealed in Chart II, page 81, there is little research on the substantive social psychological issues in marriage and family life in Alberta. In order to avoid undue repetition of research elsewhere, it is recommended that research be extensively funded in the following areas: (a) studies focusing on the internal family characteristics of particular ethnic groups such as Indians, French Canadians, Italians; (b) studies of upper middle class and upper class family systems; (c) studies of alternative and innovative family forms; (d) studies of a longitudinal nature. In the latter case, in particular, nearly all family research has been limited to one point in time. Much can be learned from the study of families through time. In addition, research which emphasizes behavior rather than attitudes of family members should be given priority. Replications of research done elsewhere should be supported without hesitation if the study represents an area of policy or problem priority in Alberta.

5. Little is known about marriage and family life in Alberta. Intelligent legislation cannot presume to speak for the needs of family members without the knowledge of the nature and scope of those needs. Consequently, informative research should be encouraged to provide answers to the kinds of questions raised above.

6. The province should seriously consider the support of an Institute of Family Study in Alberta with several related purposes. An institute of this nature might *first* be responsible for the control and allocation of research funds to research projects in the family area. Existing distribution centers (e.g., the Mental Health section of HRRC) are too broad in scope to meet adequately the needs of family research. Should an institute of this nature be funded, it could seek additional funds outside the province and likely attract research scholars in the family area to the province. A *second* function of the institute might include the training of professional personnel to conduct research, to teach at advanced levels in the family area, to teach family life education in the schools and community, and to provide

marriage and family counseling; Specialists are needed in each of these areas now. Training programs must be initiated soon in order to catch up with the need. A *third* function of the institute might include the provision of in-service training opportunities for community leaders and parents who wish to improve their parental skills. *Finally*, an institute could perform an important service to the province by being responsible for the coordination and integration of family services and the provision of materials, films, and related resources to persons working with families.

7. Funds should be set aside to provide scholarships to students who are specifically interested in training for family services, i.e., marriage and family counseling, family life education, family social work, and family research. Short of an institute, existing departments should be encouraged to develop training programs in these areas through the allocation of designated funds. In the interim, summer workshops and other emergency training experiences should be supported in the interest of meeting the needs of families in Alberta.

8. Existing agencies serving families should be encouraged to expand their services by obtaining additional well-trained staff which will be underwritten by the province. Even so, standards of excellence should be increased in the interest of meeting the needs of people rather than dealing with marriage and family difficulties at a surface level.

9. Additional effort must be expended in the coordination and integration of family services at all levels. The potential for overlap and redundancy remains apparent in the services of agencies within the major urban centers. Agencies should be required to collaborate in the provision of services in order to sustain continued funding. Standards of competence (in both expertise and empathy) should be established for agency personnel in order to maintain Provincial support. A coordinating committee might be established to exercise these controls over member agencies (member, in this case, referring to any agency partially supported by public funds).

10. Finally, agencies like the Human Resources Research Council of Alberta might well be asked to play an increasingly important role in the supervision and administration of funds to social service agencies. The obvious interconnection between research, policy, and social service precludes their continued segregation.

APPENDIX

DEFINITION OF CENSUS TERMS

Household. For census purposes, a household consists of a person or group of persons occupying one dwelling. It usually consists of a family group, with or without lodgers, employees, etc. However, it may consist of a group of unrelated persons, of two or more families sharing a dwelling, or of one person living alone. Every person is a member of some household, and the number of households equals the number of occupied dwellings. A dwelling is a structurally separate set of living quarters with a private entrance from outside or a common hall or stairway inside. Entrance must not be through anyone else's living quarters.

Head of Household. For census purposes, each household must have a head. In general, the person chiefly responsible for the maintenance of the household is normally considered as "head". The household head may or may not be head of a family as well. (See below for definition of "head of family".)

Type of Household. Households are classified as to whether they consist of one family, two or more families, or are non-family households, and whether additional persons such as relatives or lodgers are present.

In a one-family household, the family is usually that of the household head, but it may be one living as a related, lodging, or other type of family with a household head who is a non-family person.

Similarly, in two or more family households, one family may be that of the household head, or the household head may be a non-family person with whom two or more families are residing.

Non-family households are constituted either of one person living alone, or of a group of two or more persons not in families but living together as a household.

Average number of persons per household is based on private households since collective households are excluded from the data in this report.

Dwelling. For census purposes, a dwelling is a structurally separate set of living quarters, with a private entrance either from outside the building or from a common hall or stairway inside.

Single Detached - this type is commonly called a "single house". It contains only one dwelling unit which is completely separated on all sides from any other dwelling or structure.

Single Attached - this category includes dwelling units separated by a common wall extending from ground to roof, as in the case of double houses, rows, or a single unit adjoining a store or other non-residential structure.

Apartments and Flats - include all dwellings situated above or below another dwelling or non-residential premises in the same building.

Mobile - refers to any dwelling designed for movement and actually moveable, such as trailer, railway car, or boat, if occupied by persons with no other usual residence at the census date.

Tenure. A dwelling is classified as "owned" (even though mortgaged) if it belongs to some member of the household; otherwise, it is classified as "rented", whether or not a specified rent is paid.

Family. As defined by the census, may consist either (a) of a husband and wife (with or without children who have never married), or (b) of a parent, with one or more children who have never married. In either case, all persons who constitute a family must be living in the same dwelling. The term *never married* is significant in the census family definition. Once a child marries, he ceases to be a member of the parents' family, even if he continues to live in the same dwelling. To illustrate: a married daughter and son-in-law form a separate family, even if sharing the same dwelling with the wife's parents. A married daughter by herself (i.e., without her husband or children), living with her parents is classified as a non-family person. The classification *persons in families* includes all persons who constitute a family in the sense defined above. Unmarried children (including own children, adopted children and stepchildren) are, regardless of age, members of the family and are classified together with parents as persons in families. Guardianship children or wards are classified as persons in families only if under 21 years of age.

Type of Family. Families are classified as to whether they maintain their own household, that is whether the head of the family is also the head of the household. Those not maintaining their own household are classified as to whether the family is related to the household head or represents a lodging family. The "other" families not maintaining their own household are a relatively small number of families, such as those of servants or employees.

Head of Family. For census families where both husband and wife are present, the husband rather than the wife is considered to be "head". For families consisting of a parent and child (or children) of single status, the parent is designated "head", regardless of age or dependency.

Marital Status. Included in the "married" classification are married persons who, at the time of the census, were living apart for any reason, including those for whom legal separation proceedings may have taken place.

Husband-Wife Family. The term "husband-wife family" applies to all families in which both husband and wife were living together at the census date, with or without children.

Lodger. A lodger is a person not related to the head of the household where he resides. Also included as lodgers are wards for whom room and board is paid. Employees of the household head and persons who share expenses of the head are not included as lodgers.

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